

# The Nation.

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## The Week.

WE have seen in two or three cases remarks upon our promising no 'new features' and offering no 'inducements' to subscribers for the coming year, after the example of many of our contemporaries. The explanation is that after careful observation of several other papers which do promise 'new features,' we have been pained by the strikingly close resemblance which the numbers of each year bear to those of the preceding year, and have come to the conclusion that, if it was not for the name of the thing, a paper is just about as valuable without 'new features' as with them. Anybody who has subscribed to any leading periodical for a long time must confess with sorrow that he has rarely found that the high hopes excited in his palpitating breast by a perusal of the January prospectus have lasted beyond February, and that, year in and year out, the mental sustenance he got from it was about the same. We consequently have reached the conclusion that, without casting any reflection on anybody else, we, for our part, celebrate the New Year most becomingly and profitably by promising nothing new. We have no undiscovered genius in reserve; our hatred of evil, and our love of the True, the Beautiful, and the Good were, to the best of our knowledge and belief, about as strong on the 1st of January as they were in September and October, and our determination to administer telling stabs to the Man of Sin, the Man of Sedan, and the Greatest Criminal of the Age, whoever he may be, we can assure our readers is independent of the weather. No virtuous glow comes over us about the time that subscriptions expire, nor does our zeal wax cold after the holidays. Satan would find himself just as uncomfortable on our premises in April as in December, as he well knows.

The great Motley mystery has at last been revealed in the publication of a dense mass of correspondence between Mr. Motley and Mr. Fish relating to the removal and its causes. The facts of the case seem to be that Mr. Motley, before going to England, prepared a 'Memoir' on the *Alabama* question, which reproduced in substance Mr. Sumner's speech at the rejection of the Johnson-Clarendon Treaty, and followed implicitly that gentleman's lead as to the nature of the wrong done to the United States. This Memoir was presented to Mr. Fish, who returned it to the writer, according to both parties, without any expression of dissent, but also without any expression of approval, and with an intimation that the discussion of the *Alabama* affair had better be suspended till the passions roused by the Sumner speech had had time to cool. This was sufficient to indicate that Mr. Motley's views did not meet with approval at the State Department, and if he had retained any doubts on the subject, they should have been removed by his instructions, which repudiated Mr. Sumner's theory about belligerency, and confined the American complaint strictly to the British breaches of neutrality committed after the Queen's proclamation, and towards which the proclamation, in so far as it was premature, stood in the relation not of cause but of evidence of animus. Mr. Motley, however, though refraining as directed from opening the negotiations, had a conversation with Lord Clarendon, in which he not only brought up the belligerency question, but spoke of it as 'the fountain-head of the subsequent disasters of the American people' and of 'a long series of misdeeds,' and assumed a minatory tone towards England, by talking of the 'grave responsibility she assumed in issuing it,' and making use of strong expressions with regard to American feeling, such as 'rankle,' 'fester,' 'wounds,' and so on, in all of which, according to Mr. Fish, he departed from the spirit of his instructions, and followed the spirit of the 'Memoir,' which, again, was inspired by Mr. Sumner's speech. When his report of this reached America, the President was greatly dissatisfied, and he was directed to tell Lord Clarendon that his talk had not been altogether in accordance with the President's instructions, which he did.

Mr. Motley refused to resign when called on because he had never received any intimation that his course had been unsatisfactory to the Administration, and because resignation, in compliance with a peremptory demand, would under these circumstances be equivalent, he thought, to an acknowledgment of shortcoming. On this point, the misunderstanding is very curious. Mr. Fish says he forbore criticising Mr. Motley's official conduct as they went along out of regard for his feelings and respect for his high literary standing, and evidently supposed that various little things would be taken by Mr. Motley for snubs which Mr. Motley evidently never noticed. He was apparently quite unconscious that he had gone beyond his instructions in his interview with Lord Clarendon, or that his being directed to correct himself to Lord Clarendon contained an implied rebuke; or that his failure to report his formal submission of his report of the conversation to Lord Clarendon was a grave breach of duty, and accounted for the absence of friendliness in the tone of Mr. Fish's reply. What with Mr. Fish's over-delicacy, and Mr. Motley's want of perspicacity, the final blow came like a thunder-clap. The peremptoriness of the request that Mr. Motley should resign, made in July, was due, Mr. Fish says, to anxiety to have his successor confirmed before the Senate adjourned. But what brought matters to a crisis was his submitting his report of the conversation to Lord Clarendon for verification before transmitting it, without telling his own Government that it had been so verified. This information he did not communicate till Mr. Fish had replied to the despatch, and, indeed, it did not reach Mr. Fish, who was absent from Washington, till October. But, as soon as it came to the President's knowledge, his removal was determined on, and his resignation asked for.

The controversy is conducted with dignity and moderation on both sides, and with considerable advantage for Mr. Fish, till he reaches the close of his despatch, where he loses temper over Mr. Motley's assertion that revenge for Mr. Sumner's hostility to the San Domingo treaty had something to do with his dismissal, and indulges in illustrations and sarcasms more worthy of the columns of our esteemed contemporary, the *Tom-tom*, than of a grave official paper. It is altogether a sorry and discreditable affair, and, though the correspondence reveals in Mr. Motley an absence of the temper and habit of mind necessary to the proper conduct of an international controversy, and especially one of a quasi-legal character, it certainly shows want of tact on the part of the Administration. No man of Mr. Motley's standing, or of any standing, filling his office, ought to be turned adrift at a week's notice without acquainting him in full with the causes of his dismissal. We are afraid the San Domingo quarrel will be seriously embittered by the light and depreciatory tone in which Mr. Fish speaks of Mr. Sumner's 'great speech'—we mean that on the *Alabama* claims.

The civil service got early attention on the reassembling of Congress on Wednesday week. We may, we suppose, credit Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, with a reformatory purpose rather than a regard for the revenue when he moved an enquiry of the Senate Committee on Finance as to the expediency of imposing stamp duties on every application, and every signature to an application, for office to the President or heads of departments. Mr. Trumbull's bill, to make it a penal offence for Congressmen to solicit, advise, or recommend the same officers to make appointments to office, was reintroduced, somewhat modified by his committee, and we should characterize the short debate that followed as hopeful. Mr. Sherman gave in his adhesion to the measure, while Mr. Morton, who has undoubtedly made some of the worst recommendations with which the President has been afflicted, declared it to be unconstitutional and false in principle, and that the Government could not be carried on without the present system.

The only other noteworthy proceedings in the Senate have been the passage of an amendment to the Funding Act, increasing

the 5 per cent. issue from two hundred to five hundred millions, which is simply child's play, and listening to documents from the Secretary of War touching Senator Sprague's alleged complicity with Texas cotton frauds during the war, and from Secretary Fish concerning Mr. Motley's recall. In the House, the Paraguayan difficulty has been debated with a result favorable to ex-Minister Washburn's part in it—a court of enquiry being ordered for Admirals Godon and Davis, whose conduct on the Plate River is censured. San Domingo came up on Wednesday, the 4th, Fernando Wood asking for information, which the House refused to follow the precedent of the Senate by allowing him. Gen. Butler, the next day, was permitted to call for certain venerable reports made concerning the island in Polk's and Pierce's administrations. On Monday, after numerous rebuffs, Judge Orth persuaded two-thirds of his colleagues to take up the Senate resolution, and on Tuesday it was carried with an amendment declaring Congress not thereby committed to annexation.

The January Treasury statement of the national debt, which had not yet appeared when we wrote last week, confirms everything we then said concerning the cash balance in the Treasury. It has risen from 125 millions, on December 1, to 138 millions in January, although over nine millions of the increase is due to a corresponding increase in the private coin deposits—a circumstance which we are, however, totally unable to account for by any known operations of the Treasury. After paying all its obligations maturing on the 1st instant, the Secretary will have over 50 millions in gold, and nearly 20 millions in currency, more than he has any intelligent use for, while in his published programme for the month he proposes to sell only his probable surplus of monthly receipts in coin, and to invest, besides the proceeds of these, only two additional millions of currency in the purchase of bonds. In other words, of his 70 millions of surplus, he proposes to employ two millions during the month of January! The reduction of the debt during December was small, a trifle over two millions. The balance of interest due the United States by the Pacific railroads is shown to be over six millions of dollars.

The new year has brought a rather improved tone into business. The export trade continues large and active, with some improvement in breadstuffs and meats, but with a further decline in cotton, which is now very near ante-war prices, having sold a trifle below fifteen cents a pound. Country trade is generally quiet, but in spite of further decline in many kinds of dry goods, dealers are more cheerful. Money has again returned to its normal figure of six to seven per cent., and on the Stock Exchange prices have been advancing, but the effect of the recent failures can scarcely be said to have exhausted itself, especially since each further detail seems to place them in a worse light. The failure of the two insurance companies is reviving the entire question of insurance management, and is likely to bring to light whatever is rotten. Gold continues unexpectedly steady, although the number of States, towns, and corporations that are paying the interest on their ante-war engagements in coin is steadily increasing. The apparent failure of the State of Alabama to pay the interest on its bonds lent to a railroad company has had a less damaging effect on Southern securities than was generally anticipated, but the management of the finances of some of the Southern States is discouraging in the extreme. The coal strike has now become very general, and coal has advanced somewhat, but less than the manipulators expected. Real estate is dull, but with less pressure to sell than was looked for about this time.

An event apparently unimportant, yet possibly of wide-reaching consequences, is the contract just concluded between the Pacific Mail Steamship Company and the Central Pacific Railroad, by which the former agree to abandon their line of steamers between San Francisco and Panama, and to put additional vessels on the route from San Francisco to China and Japan, virtually converting the Steamship Company into a continuation of our Pacific railroads, and forcing the freight and passenger traffic of the East to come across the continent, instead of going around it. The Pennsylvania Central Railroad Company are at

the same time constructing vessels for a transatlantic line of steamers to connect with their railroad, and the Baltimore and Ohio road are contracting in Glasgow for English-built vessels for the same purpose. The expanding power and influence of these great railroad corporations appears to know no limit; they are not satisfied with the control of the land, they now seek the control of the sea as well. In the meantime, the same aggressive, expansive tendency is visible in other financial quarters. American bankers are everywhere competing with old-established English firms for the money business of the world, and so remarkable has been the increase in the number of American banking-houses in London that the owner of a new bank-building in Lombard Street, London, has thought it worth his while to advertise his 'Offices to Let' in the New York daily papers.

The *Chicago Tribune*, while warmly endorsing some recent remarks of ours on the subject of land-grants, takes exception to what it calls 'some serious errors' in our statement of facts relating thereto. If we had been in error we might be excusable, for no harder task is ever performed by the journalist than that of extracting the grain of important fact from the bushel of irrelevant detail and opinion, which constitute the bulk of our official reports. To this the Land Office Report is no exception. We have searched it vainly for a precise statement of the 'total area of the United States,' which we gave at about 2,200,000,000 acres, and which the *Chicago Tribune* thinks we overestimated by several hundreds of millions of acres. After considerable labor, we ascertain the total area of the United States to be 2,290,170,880 acres, or nearly one hundred million more than our figures. The figures of the public domain were likewise given by us correctly as 1,820,000,000 acres (in precise figures, 1,834,998,400 acres), which constitute the subject-matter of the 'public land problem.' The context clearly showed that we referred to the past as well as the present. Of the 2,290,000,000 acres which constitute the total area of the United States, about 400,000,000 had passed into private ownership before the establishment of the Land Office. The remaining 1,800,000,000 and more formed the public domain which we stated had been in process of gradual settlement ever since. Of these 1,800,000,000, about 400,000,000 have been thus gradually settled, or at least have passed out of the control of the Government, in addition to the 400,000,000 which the Government, as such, never owned. Perhaps our words admitted of the construction that the whole 1,800,000,000 acres remained *to-day* in the possession of the nation at large, which would, of course, be incorrect. The precise facts are: The total area of the United States is 2,290,000,000 acres. Of these, 455,000,000 acres had passed into the ownership of States, corporations, or individuals before the establishment of the Land Office, leaving 1,835,000,000 acres at the disposal of the nation at large. Of these latter, 439,000,000 acres have been disposed of at various times up to November 1, 1869, the date of the last published official report, and 1,396,000,000 remained then to be disposed of, including in the latter the amounts granted to railroads, but not yet received. We repeat these figures for the benefit of readers who may, like the *Chicago Tribune*, have put upon our words a misconstruction to which they were no doubt liable. But the figures can in no way affect the force of the argument.

We asserted last week on excellent authority that the manager of the meeting for the celebration of the union of Italy had been unable to get any politicians of note to attend it. The committee since inform the *Evening Post* that they have got favorable replies from some politicians of note, but do not say how many. We suspect they are very few in number, and have come in since we received our information. We now suggest that the committee publish the list of persons whom they invited to attend the meeting, and append the replies, or otherwise indicate the result of the invitation. It would be both interesting, instructive, and refreshing. A politician driven shivering to the wall, and forced to confess that he had no convictions, and had long lost the art of forming them, or the courage to utter them if he had them, is and will always be a delightful spectacle, and its attractions are heightened when the poor creature, though bred a Presbyterian, or Congrega-



tionalist, or Baptist, is detected trying to persuade Irishmen that he feels sorry for the Pope and the Temporal Power. Schuyler Colfax has relieved himself of all imputation arising out of this matter by writing a very sensible letter, expressing warm sympathy with the Italian cause.

Confinement in the state prison in some parts of the country is rapidly ceasing to constitute a stain on a man's character, and becoming simply 'an experience,' like another. Few persons are without some congenital peculiarity which will account for their presence in that institution without burdening them with much responsibility. In other words, we are gradually shifting the guilt of our robberies, and murders, and frauds, and adulteries on our ancestors, which, as it does not hurt our ancestors, and saves us a good deal of annoyance and inconvenience, is an excellent arrangement. The most remarkable illustration of the growing respectability of the penitentiary as a place of residence has just been furnished by a biographical account, appearing in various papers, of an aged scoundrel, named Ruloff, now on trial for robbery and murder, at Binghamton, in this State. He had previously killed his wife and child, but escaped hanging for that owing to his successful concealment of the *corpora delicti*. His life has, however, been one of continuous crime, and he has worn half-a-dozen aliases. He passed most of his time from 1836 to 1859 in Ithaca jail, where, says the *Tribune*, he occupied himself 'in studying criminal law and in teaching the languages. He received students in jail, and at times would have a number of young men and even young ladies reciting to him.' The jailer seems to have committed to him the education of his son, a young man who repaid his instructions by assisting his preceptor to break jail, which he did successfully, but was recaptured a year or two later.

The bombardment of the forts on the east of Paris has been continued, after the reduction of Fort Avron, steadily and effectively, as the reports from the Prussian camps say, but hardly without intermission. The fall of Fort Avron, coupled with the continued attacks of the Germans, gave rise to intense excitement in the besieged city, and to clamors for a sortie on a grander scale than heretofore made. Trochu, who was charged with weakness, answered in a proclamation, in which he deprecated the efforts made by his assailants to destroy the harmony to which Paris owed her prolonged resistance, and promised that the army, which needed rest, but was preparing to act, would do its duty. A council of war subsequently adopted measures for the consolidation of the National and Mobile Guards with the regular army for a 'more vigorous defence of the city,' which were immediately to be carried into effect. The besiegers in the meanwhile not only kept up a 'most violent bombardment,' as Trochu designated it, from the east, to which only Fort Nogent was able effectively to reply, but on Thursday, Jan. 5, also opened a heavy fire against the southern forts, Issy, Vanves, and Montrouge, as well as on the entrenchments at Villejuif, further east, and on the gunboats in the Seine. This bombardment was energetically continued on the following days, and 'was proceeding favorably' on the 8th, according to King William. The barracks in Fort Vanves were then on fire. A crisis was evidently approaching.

In the North, considerable engagements took place, on the 2d and 3d, between the armies of Faidherbe and Manteuffel, near Bapaume, south of Arras. The French had the offensive, and, after the first day's fighting, Faidherbe telegraphed to the Government at Bordeaux that he had 'driven the Prussians from all the positions and villages occupied by them,' with 'enormous loss,' his own being 'serious.' On his part, Manteuffel reported a repulse, on that day, of the enemy, 'with small Prussian loss and a heavy loss to the French.' On the 3d, Faidherbe renewed the attack, which, after an obstinate contest, General von Goeben, the commander of the Prussian Eighth Corps, 'victoriously repelled,' according to the German official despatch, forcing the enemy to 'a retreat which soon became disastrous.' The French general, however, though actually retreating towards Arras, took a different view of

the affair, telling his soldiers, in an order of the day, that [they 'had well deserved of the country,' and that even the enemy could this time not deny them victory—on which point, as we have seen, he was decidedly mistaken. On the other hand, his pursuit by the Prussians does not seem to have been vigorous. On the same day, the 3d, General Benthelm, commander of the First Corps, forming the western division of Manteuffel's army, and operating on the Lower Seine, defeated a French force on the left bank of that river, driving it beyond Bourga-chard. This place, however, as well as Bourgethroude, the French claim to have reoccupied a few days later, after a victory by General Roy, to which German reports make no allusion. At the opposite extremity of the northern theatre of war, the Prussians have captured Rocroy.

Concerning military operations in the West and East, our information is more scanty than ever. Bordeaux despatches for a number of days gave us vague news of successes achieved by General Chanzy's flying columns, and exaggerated accounts of his forces, and finally a more detailed account of a victory won, after some disadvantages, near St. Arnoult and Montoire, in the valley of the Loir (a river which most of our papers continue to ignore, transferring the operations to the better-known Loire, just as they obstinately cling to the erroneously accepted name Chauzy). In consequence of this action, the Germans were said to have fallen back on Vendôme. These reports, however, are contradicted, or at least made insignificant, by later despatches from German sources, which announce the steady and 'victorious' advance of the forces under Prince Frederic Charles and the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg towards Le Mans, and the occupation of Montoire, Sargé, Savigny, La Chartre, and St. Celais, by the former, and of Nogent-le-Rotrou by the latter. A separate force, belonging to Frederic Charles's army, seems to be looking after Bourbaki—about whose advance eastward we continue to receive mysterious hints—as we hear of some fighting near Briare, on the Loire, above Gien. In the East, in spite of Bourbaki's threatening movements, General von Werder seems to have resumed the offensive, but the report that his troops have 'reoccupied Auxonne,' on the Saône, between Dôle and Dijon, can hardly be correct, if there be any truth in the statement accompanying it that 'there are forty thousand French near Riez,' between Vesoul and Besançon. The siege of Belfort continues uninterrupted.

Contrary to the Cable announcement, which we reproduced last week, of the declaration of Roumanian independence by Prince Charles, we now hear—and this is in itself much more likely to be correct—that 'the Roumanian Government has assured the Sublime Porte of its fidelity to the Treaty of 1856.' This simplifies the Eastern question, the speedy treatment of which by a conference to be held at London is again looked for with lively interest. Jules Favre's going or not going to attend that conference is a matter much talked about in contradictory reports from various quarters. We also hear of the unwillingness on the part of Prussia to support the demand of Austria for a fresh guaranty—against Russia—for the security of the navigation of the Lower Danube. Notwithstanding this, the Austrian Chancellor, Count Beust, in answer to a notification by his Prussian rival of the restoration of the German Empire, expresses in strong terms his satisfaction with that 'act of historical significance and paramount importance.' The sincerity of his words, however, in spite of what Austria has gained in real strength and cohesiveness by her compulsory separation, in 1866, from Germany, may be doubted, especially when he adds that 'the glorious history of the Hapsburgs, as linked with the history of Germany, will be remembered by the Emperor only with feelings of the warmest sympathy'—which is saying too much for the generosity of Francis Joseph. In opposition to the demands and intrigues of Russia, Count Beust displays a more decidedly frank and manly policy, which is quite distasteful to the Czechs and Slovaks, who, emboldened by Gortchakoff's late moves, so threatening to Austria, have tried to intimidate the Chancellor into compliance with their demands by half-traitorous demonstrations in favor of Pan-Slavism.

## THE FRENCH RESISTANCE.

PARIS was not generally expected to hold out more than two months; it has held out four, and may hold out another. The reverses of the French army in August and September were so tremendous as to seem irretrievable. People supposed, and not unnaturally, that any people capable of upholding and obeying the set of soldiers and statesmen whom Bismarck carried off captive at Sedan, could hardly have any recuperative energy, and that once down they would stay down. Nevertheless, since then a force of six or seven hundred thousand men has been organized and armed. To have raised and disciplined such a force so as to enable it to stand long enough in the field for the enemy to get near it, is no mean exploit. To have done it, as it has been done, in the absence of all enthusiasm or initiative or habit of self-dependence on the part of the people, makes it all the more creditable still. Indeed, considering the condition in which the surrender at Sedan and the revolution in Paris left France, it would be hard to find a match for it in history. It is not at all unnatural that the sight of these unlooked-for displays of vigor should rouse more or less sympathy amongst those who, though they have no liking for Prussia, were so appalled by the revelation made by the war of the meanness and rottenness of the system under which France had sat contentedly for eighteen years, that they had nearly come to the conclusion that she did not even deserve pity. There is in human nature, generally, a laudable and irresistible disposition to side with the weaker party in every contest, and in addition to this there is in Anglo-Saxon human nature a kind of savage gratitude to anybody, be it dog, cock, pugilist, or nation, who, though badly beaten, and with nothing to hope from fighting on, shows spectators good sport by refusing to give in. The French are appealing both to the higher and the lower feeling. They are horribly unfortunate, and yet they are by sheer persistence bringing back to the war the interest of its first stage, and making the issue appear still a little uncertain. The consequence is, that a great number of people, both here and in England, who gave them up as lost last September, are now to be found not only praising them highly, but predicting their ultimate success.

There is, as it seems to us, no ground for anticipating anything of the kind; and in reading the elaborate prophecies of what France will do which are now appearing in the columns of some of our contemporaries, we are irresistibly reminded of the attempts which were made to bolster up the Southern cause in the last year of the rebellion, and the influence of which on persons engaged in the cotton trade caused such widespread ruin in 1865. Not only do we hear the most extraordinary stories of French resources, as regards men and the *matériel* of war, but we are gravely told to look for the display of a dourness, desperation, and tenacity, on the part of Frenchmen, such as not only they have never displayed, but no people similarly situated has ever displayed. The illusion—for such we cannot help calling it—has gone so far that even the London *Spectator* draws hope for France from the example of the Prussians under Frederick the Great in the Seven Years' War, and actually bids us expect, from the property-loving, ease-loving, unadventurous, materialistic, undisciplined, and unloyal Frenchmen of to-day, the desperate courage of the devout, grim, hardy, poor, enthusiastic, and devotedly loyal Prussians who stood round their hero-king in that wonderful struggle a century ago.

Let us look the facts in the face. The occupation of the whole Prussian force with the two great sieges of Paris and Metz may be said to have given the French Government complete freedom, during the months of September, October, and November, to call out, arm, and organize fresh levies; and that, owing to their command of the sea, they have done this with success, there is no denying. But it must be remembered that if the calculations made in 1867-8 by the Minister of War, when bringing in the bill for the reorganization of the army, were correct, the whole fighting population of France is now under arms. It was then declared, and by those who were anxious to make the most of her resources, that the new organization would sweep into the line the reserves and national guard (mobile and sédentaire), 1,200,000 men. Anybody who knows anything whatever about military organization, however, knows that the estimates on paper are

never reached in practice, and that when it is said that a country can put 1,200,000 men under arms, what is really meant is that she can, perhaps, bring 1,000,000 into the field. Now France has had since the beginning of the present war over 350,000 men taken prisoners, and sent to Germany. She has had, on a very moderate calculation, 150,000 killed and wounded. If we say that altogether 200,000 Frenchmen of the fighting age have since the 1st of August been consigned to their graves or are now in hospital, we shall certainly be under the mark. So here we have at one blow 550,000 of the million *hors de combat*. Allowing 200,000, most probably an exaggeration, for the Army of the Loire or for the First and Second Armies into which it has been divided, we leave 250,000 for the garrison of Paris and for the forces in the North and East. We will, however, make the garrison of Paris 300,000, and give Faidherbe and the other generals 100,000, which will make the total French force 600,000. It must be remembered, however, in judging of the effectiveness of this force, that it is largely composed of very young men and men past their prime, totally undisciplined, unused to hardships, and unfamiliar with the work of taking care of themselves in the field; and that its officers have no more experience than the privates, and that the French commissariat, never very good, is now in a state of complete disorganization; and that French soldiers bear reverses badly, and, according to the almost unanimous testimony of those who have seen them in the field, suffer physically in an extraordinary degree from mental depression. Any one who considers these things can hardly help feeling a good deal astonished by the calm assurance of writers who tell us that France has 2,800,000 fighting-men to draw on, while Germany has her last man in the field; and who talk of the melting away of the Prussian hosts under the influence of the hardships and casualties of the campaign, as if it was only the Prussians who were melting away, and as if trained soldiers, under good officers, in an army which carries efficiency in every department to the verge of pedantry, was at all likely to lose as heavily from the ordinary campaign hardships as raw levies, however enthusiastic. We may take it for granted that for one German who succumbs to the cold and fatigue two Frenchmen do so. We must bear in mind, too, that Germany is drawing her supplies of men from a population as large as that of France, and that supposing her to have lost man for man from casualties and disease, France has lost through surrenders about 400,000 men more than Germany has done. That is a large army, and one-third at least of her total fighting force, so that, supposing the determination of the two parties to be equal, and their powers of endurance to be equal, and their capacity for destruction to be equal, Germany has still an enormous advantage over France. That the Germans are operating in an enemy's country is constantly spoken of as a disadvantage, and so it is. But then it is, on another side, a great advantage. It leaves their lines of communication in danger, but it enables them to draw a large proportion of their supplies from French soil, and by disorganizing French society and industry, and breaking up French highways, it greatly increases the difficulties of the French resistance. Germany is doubtless suffering dreadfully from the war, but not in the same way, or in the same degree, as France. The male population of Germany is being slowly and remorselessly drawn into the field, and so is that of France; but the devastation of the war, properly so called, falls on France only.

People who are flattering themselves with the notion that because Prince Frederic Charles has given up pursuing the Army of the Loire,\* and because Werder has fallen back from Dijon, the German resources must be failing, and the position of the army becoming critical, must have forgotten what the problem is which the Germans have to solve. Their main object is now, and has been since September last, the capture of Paris, and this for two reasons: first, because it is the enemy's capital, the seat of his government, and, in a peculiar degree, the centre of his political system; and secondly, because it is a great fortress, and contains over 300,000 men, or, in other words, over one-half the remaining French army, and enormous quantities of munitions and artillery. An operation which aims at the seizure of the capital and

\* News has since come that he is continuing the pursuit.



the destruction of the force by one and the same stroke, is an operation of the first magnitude. Everything else is subsidiary to it. Therefore, the work of the Germans has, during the last four months, been the siege of Paris. Whatever force they can spare from the immediate work of keeping Trochu shut up, is employed, not in overrunning the country, as some people seem to imagine—a futile and disastrous undertaking at midwinter—but in preventing interference with the besieging force from the outside. This they have very successfully and very easily done thus far; this, it is quite plain, they will do without much difficulty to the end. The late operations of the French have been mainly interesting as exhibitions of the national capacity; their influence on the progress of the war has been very slight indeed.

Ample justice has been done on all sides to the constancy and pluck of the members of the Provisional Government, and especially to that of Gambetta, who appears to have entire charge of the conduct of the war outside Paris. But those who are disposed to forgive this gentleman and his colleagues everything in consideration of the energy they have shown in raising and arming troops, would do well to read the rebuke administered to them in the late letter of M. Guizot, translated in *Macmillan's Magazine*, and which is none the less severe for being sugared over with compliments to their honesty and patriotism. The substance of what he says is this, and every careful observer will heartily concur with him: that it is not possible to bring the full force of a nation into play for military purposes, unless through an assembly of its representatives; that a representative government, necessary at all times, is doubly necessary in time of war; that to dispense with such an assembly, and go on raising troops, borrowing money, and keeping the whole male population of the fighting age under arms, is a responsibility which no man, or six or twelve men, have any right to assume; that its assumption by M. Gambetta is neither more nor less than a usurpation, particularly as—M. Guizot might have added—he derives his authority wholly and solely from a *coup d'état* performed on a regularly constituted legislature by a mob rushing in from the street; and that the very readiness with which he is obeyed by the armies and the country, which some people think so very fine, is a most deplorable sign of the disposition of the French to rely, in all scrapes and perplexities, on the 'one-man power'—a disposition which has been their political ruin thus far, and which M. Gambetta is doing everything he can to foster. We may add, as an expression of our own opinion, that a worse offence against the principle of popular sovereignty—which this Provisional Government professes to have at heart—has never been committed than its persistent neglect and refusal to call together a national assembly, no matter how small, or in what nook or corner it meets; and it is aggravated by the unblushing avowal which Louis Blanc has made, that the reason of the refusal is the fear that, if such an assembly met, it would not set up a republic. We may go further, and say that a greater crime than this same Gambetta is committing in taking on his shoulders the sole responsibility, without counsellors, and without regular communication with his colleagues in Paris, of continuing a bloody and disastrous war, and of offering the unfortunate French people, already far too familiar with the processes of despotism, no alternative but unconditional surrender, or continued resistance under the orders of a self-appointed dictator, no French politician, except Louis Napoleon, has been guilty of. The admiration his performances meet with, too, from some Americans and Englishmen, is but one degree removed from the glorifications which another set of Americans and Englishmen bestowed in the days of his glory on 'the Man of Sedan.' Gambetta, like Bonaparte, is trying 'to save France,' out of his own head, and in his own way; but France can never be saved but by herself; and France only speaks and acts, and can only speak or act, through a regularly elected representative assembly.

#### A NOVEL SCHEME FOR SECURING RAILROAD COMPETITION.

A NOVEL method of creating a competition among railroads is something the suggestion of which, at this late day, is calculated to excite surprise. The Board of Railroad Commissioners of Massachusetts have, however, undertaken to do it, and the development of their plan constitutes the essential feature in their report for the year 1871. Not only have they undertaken the task, but they have fortified themselves

in their attempt by a formidable array both of facts and statistics, drawn from practical experience elsewhere.

The curious results produced by what is called competition in transportation by rail have frequently been discussed in the columns of the *Nation*. Year by year, this system is working its way out to its logical conclusion, which is now becoming alarmingly apparent. A few weeks ago, representatives of three of the great trunk thoroughfares between the West and the East met in conclave and concluded a solemn treaty. The war of rates was to cease; competition was to be an indiscretion of the past, and combination was established as the law of the future. The several corporations were not, indeed, to 'pool' their profits, and so merge themselves into one closely cemented monopoly. This final lesson of experience was reserved for a not very remote future; for the present they simply swore a peace, sure, before long, to vanish in a new war. Meanwhile, what was this very competition thus brought to a close? How far did it extend? What are, indeed, the limits of any competition between private railroad corporations? This subject, even yet, is little understood, and there is a species of cant about it which the experience of years seems unable to dissipate. A real and healthy competition, under an active law of supply and demand, is one which permeates the whole community, and the advantages of which are participated in by all persons and in all places. It does not create an unnatural fulness in one locality, to be balanced by a corresponding dearth in another; it does not give control of the markets of the world to the residents in one section of the same country, and surrender those of another wholly to the mercies of a monopoly; it does not produce wild fluctuations, running perhaps through hundreds per cent., subject to no law, and brought about without notice; it does not admit of conventions and combinations, and 'poolings of profits'; it does not defy all calculation, and, in the twinkling of an eye, transform the feast of to-day into the famine of the morrow. All these rapid changes and strong contrasts are, however, produced by what is misnamed the competition of railways.

The reason of all this is obvious—it is equally obvious that the difficulty is one inherent in the system. There are two insuperable obstacles placed by the nature of things in the way of a full and healthy operation of the laws of supply and demand on any system of transportation by rail carried on through the medium of private corporations. In the first place, the number of these corporations cannot but be very limited—so limited, indeed, that combination is always perfectly practicable. In the second place, competition is necessarily confined to competing points. The first of these limitations has been so much dwelt upon of late, that it may now be considered as fairly established in the popular mind. The second is rapidly working itself into general acceptance. Every one at all interested in railroad investments is perfectly familiar with the suspicion with which capitalists regard every road which makes a great display of heavy receipts from through business. Competition, experience has taught them, eats up all their profits—the more they do, not seldom the poorer they become. It is the local business which makes dividends certain, and it does so because the local business is not subject to competition. In plain English, it is a sure monopoly. Competition is thus at best confined to points where railroads converge; and throughout the country, irrespective of population, not one place in twenty on our railroads is a point of convergence, and, consequently, not one point in twenty enjoys any competition, or experiences, except in some remote degree, the operation of those laws of supply and demand to which we have been contented to leave all regulation of our railroad system. The community now, therefore, as the result of thirty years of experience, finds itself placed in this position—nineteen points, perhaps, out of every twenty on our railroads are wholly at the mercy of close monopolies; each twentieth point enjoys the advantages of such effects of a law of supply and demand as may be evolved out of fierce competition alternating with strict combination.

Such is the condition of affairs with which apparently the course of their investigations brought the Massachusetts Commissioners face to face. The way in which they have met the difficulty is worthy of notice. They say in their report that it is true competition has failed, but they argue that as yet the failure is limited to competition between

private corporations. It therefore remains to be seen if the same result would ensue were competition to be established between private and public corporations. In other words, they shift the essential element of competition—they would no longer seek it in a multiplication of competing roads in private hands, but they would find it in establishing a mixed ownership of the roads already existing. Or, stated in yet another way, they seek to break the power of combination by introducing into the system an element which will not combine. The idea of working out the problem in this way is, they acknowledge, in no respect new with them; they only seek to introduce it into America. They refer to the experience of Belgium, where such a mixed system of ownership has existed even from the beginning. In 1864, it appears that there were in that country 1,247 miles of railroad; of this amount 347 miles had been built, and had from the first been owned and operated, by the Government; 117 miles more, constructed by private parties, had been leased and were operated on the same footing as the public roads; all of the remainder, 780 miles, or nearly two-thirds of the whole, were the property of private corporations, and operated solely for their benefit. In regard to the practical working of this system, they produce the testimony of one certainly most competent to judge, M. Fessiaux, the Belgian Minister of Posts, Telegraphs, and Railways. In a statement submitted to the Royal Commission on Railways of 1866, this official declared 'the state railways thus (through a mixed system of ownership) find themselves placed in constant comparison with the railways worked by private companies; on the one hand stimulating them to general improvements, and on the other hand acting as a sort of check against any attempt to realize extravagant profits at the cost of the public.' And these results, the commissioners naturally intimate, are exactly those which they wish to see produced in Massachusetts, and which competition ought, but has hitherto lamentably failed to produce.

Though they carefully avoid all expression of opinion on the subject, it is sufficiently apparent that the Massachusetts Commissioners, however it may have resulted in Belgium, have no very implicit confidence in the results of any general ownership of railroads by the State, under our system of government. They very distinctly limit themselves at present to a proposal to temper, as it were, a general rule of ownership by private corporations by a very limited infusion of public management. They therefore now propose the purchase by the State of the railroad between Boston and Fitchburg, with a view to its management, not by the Government, they are careful to say, but by a board of trustees, to be selected by the Legislature from the community at large. The road, it seems, is only about fifty miles long, but it lies wholly within the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and is so placed among the other roads of the State as to hold a commanding position—competing, in fact, in every direction. This road, the commissioners, it would seem, rather desire to convert into a standing menace upon all the other corporations of the commonwealth, directly influencing them through it; creating, in fact, an inevitable competition between two systems of management, public and private, the continuation of each of which will depend on its not allowing the other to surpass it in the accommodation furnished to the public. The tenure of official life would, in fact, be simply during good behavior.

Of course, it is a wholly open question whether that which has been successful in Belgium would be successful in Massachusetts. It certainly would not be successful in New York. Such a snug nest for the hungry disciples of our numerous 'rings' could hardly long be kept from partisan control; soon or late, and probably very soon, it would share the fate of Central Park. Massachusetts enjoys a somewhat purer political atmosphere, and it might, by a mighty effort of ingenuity, so hedge about the direction of this road that the well-nigh ubiquitous 'man inside politics' could not effect a lodgment in it. The commissioners by no means ignore the danger from this quarter, and very distinctly give it as their opinion that the whole results of the experiment depend on avoiding it. Whether it is possible to do so or not remains to be seen. If it is possible, then there is no reason why the material results which have flowed from this form of competition in Belgium should not reproduce themselves in Massachusetts. Should they do so, the effects on the industrial development of that State

would be incalculable—its rate of increase would more than double. In any case, a new principle of railroad competition has been suggested, and certainly it has not been suggested before the need for it was felt.

### THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE.

THE empire which was destroyed by the conquering sword of Napoleon I. has been resuscitated by the folly of Napoleon III. In 1806, Francis II., yielding to facts too patent to be ignored, laid down the Roman Imperial crown which, some eight hundred and forty years before, Otho I. permanently connected with the dignity of the King of Germany. Seven years of Napoleonic aggression and oppression followed, until the Corsican yoke was broken at Leipzig, and the oppressor driven beyond the Rhine. But Germany was not restored by the Congress of Vienna as an empire, but as a union of the loosest character. The German Kaiser had disappeared, and the Emperor of Austria was but a member of the Confederation, of which some of his largest possessions—Hungary, Galicia, and Lombardo-Venetia—formed no component parts. His constant rival in its leadership was the King of Prussia; and between the two, the minor kingdoms—Saxony and Hanover in the north, Bavaria and Würtemberg in the south—exerted themselves to hold the balance of power. In fact, however, Germany herself, as such, was powerless. The people yearned for real unity, but this yearning was considered criminal by their numerous and divided rulers. On one occasion, in 1849, unity came near being created by a revolutionary assembly. But Frederic William IV. refused to accept the crown of united Germany from the hands of the people, and the revolutionary movement expired. His brother and successor, King William, in 1866, cut with the sword the Frankfort knot, and on the fields of Bohemia conquered the right of proclaiming himself the head of a new Bund. This was founded in the following year, but embraced only the North of Germany. The loose ties which had connected the various sections of the German's fatherland were thus severed, and some believed this severance final. But Bismarck's skilful diplomacy had partially replaced them by secret alliances; the national feeling of the people was aroused; and what neither diplomacy nor common patriotism could rapidly achieve was consummated by the mad attack of Napoleon III. The blood spilt at Weissenburg and Wörth re cemented the union of Germany, and to him who at Sedan trampled the Imperial crown of France into the dust, his peers of Bavaria, Saxony, and Würtemberg offered the Kaiser's diadem, and, as it came from royal hands, it was accepted. On the First of January, 1871, the constitution of reconstructed Germany—of the German Empire, into which the North German Confederation has been expanded—went into active operation.

This reconstructed Empire, however, is far from being complete. First, it is not intended to embrace the German possessions of the House of Austria—Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Austria Proper, Salzburg, Tyrol, etc.—which belonged both to the Empire which expired in 1806 and to the Bund which was dissolved in 1866, and now form the Cis-Leithan division of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Secondly, it does not embrace Luxemburg and Limburg, possessions of the King of Holland, which equally belonged both to the former Empire and Bund. Thirdly, the King of Bavaria, the very prince who took the initiative in the movement for uniting Southwestern Germany with the Confederation of the North, and who was amply rewarded for his share in the work by exceptional and extravagant concessions on the part of Prussia, has failed to secure the ratification of his treaty with her by the lower branch of the legislature of his kingdom, which thus remains out of the Empire, at least until a dissolution of the Chamber and a new election procure the 'national' party the number of votes still wanting for the sanction. As now constituted, the German Empire embraces the following states: Prussia with all her territories—including the Provinces of East and West Prussia and Posen, which did not belong to the Bund of 1815-1866; Lauenburg, which she acquired in 1865; and her acquisitions of 1866—Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Frankfort, and Schleswig-Holstein; the kingdoms of Saxony and Würtemberg; the Grand-Duchies of Baden, Hesse-Darmstadt, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Saxe-Weimar, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and Old-

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enburgh; the Duchies of Brunswick, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, and Anhalt; the Principalities of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Waldeck, Reuss of the older line, Reuss of the younger line, Schaumburg-Lippe, and Lippe-Detmold; and the Hanse towns, Lübeck, Bremen, and Hamburg. The population of the Bund comprises, in round numbers, 34,000,000, of whom 4,000,000 belong to the new associates of Prussia—Württemberg (1,800,000), Baden, and Grand-Ducal Hesse (south of the Main). Of the 30,000,000 that formed the North German Confederation, 24,000,000 belong to Prussia (19,000,000 Prussians of 1865, and 5,000,000 inhabitants of the countries annexed in 1866), and 2,500,000 to the Kingdom of Saxony. The accession of Bavaria would add other 5,000,000.

The new Empire is, in fact, the Confederation founded by Prussia in 1867, expanded beyond the Main, its southern boundary, and slightly modified in its constitution, which is that of a government based on a mixture of national and federal principles, dictated by unavoidable compromises. From the former Imperial constitution the new essentially differs in the most important features. The former Emperor was the elective and generally powerless president of a loose union of more or less centrifugal states, some of which preponderated in turn, and each of which wielded a separate military power and followed a separate international policy. In the present Imperial union, Prussia is not only decidedly and vastly preponderating, and therefore naturally central and leading, but to her crown also belongs the executive presidency—that is, the Imperial dignity—by hereditary right; and this executive presidency is invested with prerogatives which, in international and military affairs, almost amount to exclusive rule. The Kaiser (the King of Prussia)—an irresponsible monarch without a responsible ministry—represents the Empire in all its international relations; is the commander-in-chief of all its armies and naval power; receives the oath of fidelity of the troops, and appoints their superior commanders; declares war—with the consent of the Federal (Imperial) Council, which limitation is one of the most important of Prussia's recent concessions; repels aggression—without authorization of the Council; makes peace; concludes treaties—which require ratification by the Reichstag only in cases belonging to its legislative sphere; manages or controls the common finances and customs, the posts and telegraphs (except in Württemberg), and the military roads; convokes, opens, prorogues, and closes both branches of the common legislature—the Federal Council and the Reichstag; promulgates the Federal laws, and superintends their execution; and appoints the Federal Chancellor, who presides over the Council. In this, which consists of representatives of the state governments, and not of parliamentary districts, Prussia has 17 votes (out of 52)—the same number it had in the North German Confederation—against 4 each of Saxony and Württemberg, 3 each of Baden and Hesse, 2 each of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Brunswick, and 1 each of all other members. Six additional votes were granted to Bavaria by the treaty which failed to be ratified.

The Reichstag—or Diet—which is the popular branch of the Federal legislature, consists of 334 members, whose number the accession of Bavaria would increase to 382—that is, one to each 100,000 of the population. They are chosen by universal suffrage, direct vote, and secret ballot, for a legislative period of three years. A dissolution of the Reichstag can be ordered by the Federal Council, with the consent of the executive. It has the initiative of legislation, and the right of address and interpellation. The laws it passes, however, must be sanctioned by a majority of the Federal Council. It elects its president and vice-presidents. Its deliberations are public. No member is responsible out of the Reichstag for words spoken in debate. The Federal legislative sphere embraces: the military and naval organization of the Empire; regulations concerning the common citizenship and settlement and colonization within and abroad; customs, commerce, banking, and Federal imposts; the regulation of weights and measures, coin and currency; patents, copyright, and public documents; Federal representation in foreign countries; the control of roads and water-courses essential for Federal military purposes; navigation on rivers common to various states; mails and telegraphs; penal law, civil procedure, and reciprocal execution of judgments; sanitary police; press and public meetings. The Federal control over the press and public meetings is

a feature peculiar to the new constitution, in contradistinction to that of the North German Confederation, and one of those which are most distasteful to the liberal portions of the German people. In other points, the leading power has lost some of the influence it wielded under the late Confederation, as the number of votes it had in the Federal Council and the Reichstag remains the same now, while the general number of members has been increased by the representatives of Württemberg, Baden, and South Hesse. The accession of Bavaria would still more diminish the relative preponderance of Prussia, and—if accepted on the terms lately granted—would also circumscribe the privileges of the Imperial commander-in-chief in relation to that kingdom. Of these modifications, however, we shall not speak before they take place. With them, or possibly before them, will also come the abrogation of the Zollverein, which is now almost entirely merged in the Empire.

#### ENGLAND.—THE WAR—THE STATE CHURCH.

LONDON, December 23, 1870.

ONCE more, as I look through the papers, I find an absolute dearth of all news that does not relate to the war. The only thing worth remark is the rapid growth of sympathy with France. The *Times* writes now more frequently on the French than the German side; for the *Times* has begun to doubt whether France may not possibly pull through. Yet the *Times*, and indeed the press at large, is still convinced that our one duty in regard to the war is to keep out of it. The only prominent exception is the little school of Positivist writers who are trying to stir us to a crusade on behalf of Paris—their new Jerusalem. If any of your readers would like to see a specimen of good hard-hitting controversy, they should look at a recent number of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, in which Mr. Frederick Harrison—the most powerful of the Positivist prophets—attacks the clever writer 'W. R. G.' Those initials, as everybody knows, thinly veil the name of Mr. W. R. Greg, who has a singular talent for giving ingenious reasons for an untenable view of any question of which he treats. Mr. Greg, on the present occasion, had argued that the French should submit to the Prussian terms, because—of all reasons in the world—if they held out they would have a fair chance of baffling Bismarck's demands. That people who had been beaten in fair fight should defeat their conquerors by a protracted resistance shocked—so he put it—all his feelings of equity. Mr. Harrison, it must be admitted, had an unusually good chance for upsetting an antagonist who had assumed such a position; and he smote without sparing. As another specimen of good invective on the same topic, I may refer you to Mr. Harrison's article on Bismarckism in the December number of the *Fortnightly*. Mr. Harrison, however, charm he never so wisely, will, I suspect, find that the British public will turn a deaf ear to his voice until the time of possible action has passed. Whether they do well or ill, is a matter which I leave to your reflection.

And now, I turn once more from a topic which leads me beyond my proper sphere, and look about for another. From the Continental war to the prospects of the Church of England is rather a long stride; but certain law proceedings which have recently taken place seem to me to be so curious, that I shall venture to say a few words about them. Two prosecutions have been brought before the highest court of appeals—the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council—the object in each case being to expel one extreme party from the church. Mr. Mackonochie has been attacked for ritualism, and Mr. Voysey for rationalism. Mr. Mackonochie is in fact a close imitation of a Catholic priest; Mr. Voysey's tenets, in the eyes of the outside world, are quite indistinguishable from Unitarianism. The peculiar wisdom of the Church of England has been to hit off a judicious *via media*; but the latitude permitted on either side of that medial line is so enormous that it is almost impossible to see how the balance can be maintained. In illustration of this, I will give you a short summary of Mr. Voysey's argument, which has recently been published. I will attempt rather to give the pith of it than to follow precisely in his footsteps.

The Articles of the Church of England, says Mr. Voysey, deal in great part with matters altogether above human comprehension. The doctrines of the Trinity, of the atonement, of justification by faith, and so on confessedly deal with mysteries too high for us. The consequence is that the Articles include two sets of propositions, each of them intelligible when taken separately, but apparently contradictory when taken together. The doctrine of the Trinity, for example, may be interpreted as teaching either monotheism, or something indistinguishable to our human understandings from tritheism. The doctrine of the atonement implies that in some

Incomprehensible sense the Father and Son must be considered as two distinct beings, and in some other incomprehensible sense as one being. Further, one set of propositions leads directly to the most blasphemous and degrading doctrines. The ordinary interpretation of the atonement, for example—the belief that the first person of the Trinity sentenced all human beings to hellfire because their ancestor ate an apple, and that afterwards his wrath was pacified by punishing the innocent for the guilty—is altogether revolting and preposterous. The opposite set of propositions, on the other hand, inculcates an elevating neology, which I, Mr. Voysey, teach to the best of my ability, and which is flatly contradictory to the popular interpretation of the Creed. What, then, is the consequence? It is admitted that I may not contradict the Articles in terms: I may not take any distinct proposition and insert a 'not' between the subject and the predicate; for that is against the law. But so long as I avoid this error, I may say precisely what I please. For the Articles, dealing confessedly with matters above human comprehension, do not supply trustworthy premises for any inference whatever. If we once admit reasoning, we are landed in the most direct and unequivocal contradictions. Therefore, though I may not contradict the Article, I may contradict any interpretation put upon it, or any inference drawn from it. Using this liberty, I declare that the whole popular theology is demoralizing in the highest degree. I have denounced what are ordinarily taught as the doctrines of the atonement, of original sin, of the incarnation, and of the inspiration of the Bible. I maintain that I have a perfect legal right to do so, so long as I do not in terms contradict any statement in the Creed or Articles, and that I have scrupulously and carefully avoided.

As one specimen of Mr. Voysey's application of this ingenious theory, I may say that he argues that he has a perfect right to say, if he pleases, that the doctrine of Christ's incarnation takes its rise in the grossest unbelief. The Articles affirm, indeed, that the doctrine in question is true; but they do not say in so many words whether or not it takes its rise in unbelief. Thus the elaborate system of tests imposed by the legislature is thrown aside altogether as being nothing more than an unintelligible shibboleth; and the statements, for example, of the Athanasian Creed are of no more account than an assertion that a hocus-pocus is an abracadabra. You may not say that a hocus-pocus is not an abracadabra; but you may deny any interpretation whatever that anybody chooses to put upon those words. The whole network of propositions is relegated to some dim transcendental region, whence they can never be brought to bear upon any opinions of the concrete human intellect. So long as a clergyman does not deny the existence of God, there is scarcely any conceivable doctrine which he may not substantially put forward. Mr. Voysey will, of course, be turned out of his living, but he has only put into plain language a line of argument which the Broad Church party are constantly maintaining in practice.

It is, of course, an essential part of this doctrine that a clergyman's duties in regard to teaching are accurately measured by the law, and by nothing but the law. The tests which it imposes turn out to be illusory, and there is no other authority to which an appeal is possible. The position occupied by Mr. Mackonochie and his friends is precisely the reverse of this. They look upon the law as tyrannical, and the authority of the state as representing an unjustifiable usurpation. Their inference, however, is in one respect the same with that of Mr. Voysey; they do not, indeed, assert that the law is necessarily illusory, but they equally do their best to evade it; and when they are stopped, consider themselves as martyrs. It was decided, for example, that Mr. Mackonochie had no right to raise the sacramental wafer above his head. It was attempted to evade this, if I remember rightly, by raising the paten without raising the wafer, or by raising the wafer only to the level of his eyes instead of lifting it clear of his head. When some of these evasions failed to satisfy the lawyers, and Mr. Mackonochie was suspended for three months from his office, he took the airs of a Christian bishop who had been restrained from performing his duty by a Roman emperor. There is something so inexpressibly childish about the whole business that it is impossible to wade through the pages of solemn argument in which it is discussed, or to feel very much interest in the matter one way or another. We content ourselves for the most part in drawing two or three very simple inferences, which are summed up in the one conclusion, that the theory of a state church is rapidly breaking down. The most active, which is at the same time the most feeble-minded, party in the church is openly denouncing it. The able and amiable men, such as Dean Stanley, Mr. Maurice, and their friends, who really cling to it, are obliged to put upon it an interpretation more or less approximating to

that of Mr. Voysey. That is to say, they advocate so wide a latitude of opinion that the purest deism might be preached side by side with doctrines indistinguishable from Romanism. Few people believe that such a system is practicable, or that a church can have any real vitality in which anybody can preach anything that he pleases. The Broad Church party themselves admit that something must be done to give more vigor to the institution; but they have hitherto failed to show how anything can be done short of removing altogether the control of the state. Meanwhile, the great practical scandal—though it may not be the most deeply rooted evil—which attracts public attention is the attempt of the clergy of almost every party to play fast and loose with words, and, after solemnly subscribing certain professions of faith and ostensibly undertaking to teach them, they proceed elaborately to show that they do and can mean nothing, or that they are tyrannical impositions of illegitimate authority. In one way or other we are growing sick of the incessant exhibition of intellectual dishonesty which seems to be the natural result of the present system. Mr. Voysey deserves a certain credit for openly avowing the system on which he proceeds; but his attempt to make out that his course is honorable, because it is aboveboard, will convince few people. Mr. Voysey is, indeed, personally an unmistakably honorable man; he has sacrificed his pecuniary interests by remaining as a hard-working and poorly paid curate, and avowing opinions which make professional advancement impossible. The more we see respecting his character, the more one regrets to see him driven to such quibbles; and the plain practical conclusion of simple-minded observers is that men who think the popular theology utterly demoralizing had better renounce the Articles which sanction it, instead of trying to evade them, and that men who consider state interference an unwarrantable tyranny had better leave a state church.

## Correspondence.

### THE LEE PEDIGREE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of December 29, 1870, your correspondent, 'W. H. W.', has labored most assiduously to overthrow the lineage of the Lees of Virginia, as given in my little work, 'The Lee Family,' and has endeavored to give them 'a valid claim to a more illustrious lineage.'

Your correspondent says: 'There can be hardly a doubt that Colonel Richard Lee, the emigrant to Virginia, was the seventh son of Sir Robert Lee, of Hulecott, and youngest brother of Sir Henry Lee, of Quarendon and Ditchley, Bart.' If there is 'hardly a doubt' of the fact, why not state his authority, and give us the full pedigree? The will of Richard Lee, which he partly quotes, and upon which he bases his suppositions, is hardly sufficient, since there is another Richard Lee, of the house of Litchfield, spoken of as emigrating to Virginia in 1641, just twenty-two years previous to the writing of this will. It is a pity that 'W. H. W.' has not taken 'only a little care in the identification' to make this part of the pedigree 'as satisfactory as could be desired.'

Your correspondent also gives several coats-of-arms for the family, but wisely adds: 'Either may be used by the descendants of Colonel Richard Lee, but that bearing the three crescents has been most used by the family in England.' Will 'W. H. W.' inform the Lees of Virginia which would be proper for them? Meanwhile, they await his decision with much anxiety.

If 'W. H. W.' will turn to the letter of William Lee, Esq., of Great Tower Hill, London (son of the celebrated President Thomas Lee, of Virginia), on page 51 of the 'Genealogical History of the Lee Family,' also his letter to Rev. Dr. Henry Lee, of Winchester College, England, of date 1771 (page 65), he will see that I have the authority of two of the most distinguished members of the family at that period, who state that the pioneer of the family to Virginia was of the house of 'Cotton,' or 'Coton,' in Shropshire. Also, on page 57, he will find from the inscription on the tomb of Richard Lee (the second), that he was a 'son of Richard Lee, gentleman, descended of an ancient family of Merton Regis, Shropshire.'

It is hardly to be supposed that the Lees of this generation will deny the authority of such eminent ancestry as William Lee, Dr. Arthur Lee, Richard Henry Lee, and Colonel Thomas Lee, and take up a new pedigree at this late day, brought forward by some Northern genealogist to flatter the pride of some distant cousin of the family. It is to be regretted that the old pedigree upon which the 'Genealogical History of the Lee Family' was based did not extend to a later period, and thereby settle this disputed question of the first Richard; but until there can be brought forward more



substantial evidence to the contrary, the family will continue to cling to their ancient crest of the squirrel, and motto '*Non incautus futuri*,' which they have borne for so many ages past.

Evidently 'W. H. W.' has found no 'scent' at all, and had better try again. With much respect, I am, sir, yours truly,

EDWARD C. MEAD.

KE-WICK, ALBEMARLE CO., VIRGINIA, JANUARY 8, 1871.

### THE THEORY OF FEDERAL APPOINTMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is, as I suppose, an unwritten but recognized article of our national Constitution that unfitness is always to be regarded as among the chief qualifications for office under the United States Government. Thus, who ever heard of enquiring into the specific adaptation of a cabinet officer to the duties of his department? How many of the secretaries of the Treasury since the time of Hamilton have known anything about political economy? There is in some quarters a strong suspicion that we owe at least a third part of our national debt to the utter ignorance of the fundamental principles of finance which presided over the Treasury Department at the beginning of the war. As for the navy, since the days of the Crownsfields, that department has not, I believe, in a single instance been under the supervision of a secretary who even professed converseance with ships or maritime affairs. One of the secretaries—a man excellent and eminent in his way—said to a commanding officer at one of our naval stations, 'Commodore, there is in the accounts at my office one frequent item which I do not understand. What is *oakum*?' One of our Presidents sent to an eminent statesman, now in a service for which, strange to say, he is admirably fitted, a commission as Attorney-General. The recipient replied that he could not accept the office, inasmuch as he had not had a legal education. By return of mail he received a commission as Secretary of the Navy, which he accepted, though his anterior training had fitted him as little for the one office as the other.

The most luculent confession of the doctrine under discussion which it has been my fortune to read may be found in one of the daily papers of this city, in the editorial discussion of the claims of our recently appointed Minister to England. I quote from memory, for I have not the paper at hand, but I am sure that I do not misrepresent the article: 'General Schenck lacks the urbanity and the self-possession of Mr. Adams, the learning and the social qualities of Mr. Motley, the geniality of Reverdy Johnson. He has in no degree or measure the mind or temper of a diplomatist. He is nothing but a plain, blunt, honest, successful general. Therefore, in the present delicate and difficult state of our relations with Great Britain, he is the man of all others to bring the negotiations which transcended the skill and wisdom of his predecessors to a successful issue.' Is this idiocy, or is it an exposition of the present phase of Republican doctrine?

P.

Boston, January 7, 1871.

### THE SCOTCH LANGUAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the December number of *Blackwood's Magazine* there is an article upon the humor of the Scottish language, some points in which deserve particular notice. The article is rather a misnomer, consisting mainly of a list of Scotch words, for the most part untranslatable into English, with explanations and examples of use. Many, indeed the majority, of these words have nothing humorous about them, unless to be un-English be humorous.

The only valuable thing in the whole article is a solitary piece of verbal criticism. Most people who know 'Auld Lang Syne' have probably been puzzled to understand the line:

'And we'll tak' a right gude willie-waught.'

I have heard many a Scotchman ask: 'What is a *willie waught*?' and I have never heard any satisfactory explanation of it. Our author says that, instead of 'gude willie-waught,' we ought to read 'gude-willie waught,' which, I venture to say, will be perfectly intelligible to every Scotchman who knows the language of his country. Our author evidently has not a speaking acquaintance with Scotch, and so considers the line to mean 'we'll drink with a right good will a deep or hearty waught or draught.' This is not the meaning. 'Gude-willie' means simply 'generous,' as 'ill-willie' means 'ungenerous.' 'A gude-will' often means 'an alma,' or a 'gratuity.' 'Gude-willie' is not in my copy of Jamieson's Scottish Dictionary, but 'ill-willie' is, and is defined as, 1. Ill-natured, envious. 2. *Niggardly*. 3. Reluctant.

Our author's unacquaintance with Scotch as a spoken language is plainly shown by the number of words whose real signification he does not understand. The meanings he assigns will generally suit the context of his quotations, and yet they are often incorrect—a fact which ought to show us how careful we ought to be in setting aside traditional definitions of doubtful words occurring in dead languages, in favor of others seemingly better suited to the context. He seems to have been, in some cases, misled by Jamieson, whose dictionary—with all respect be it said—is sadly defective.

*Carfuffle*, we are told, means 'agitation of mind, perplexity.' It is true, the word does mean 'agitation of mind'; it never means 'perplexity.' The real meaning is 'confusion'; the verb 'to carfuffle' means 'to confuse,' 'to disarrange.' It corresponds exactly to the Low-German *verknutseln*, and is usually applied to dress, books, or papers that have got soiled and crumpled.

*Clarty* does not mean 'dirty,' as our author and Jamieson assert. It means 'sticky,' or more exactly what the Germans express by *schmierig*.

*Clour*, Jamieson and our author notwithstanding, does not mean 'bump,' or 'lump on the flesh caused by a heavy blow.' The very passage quoted from *Noctes Ambrosianae* proves this: 'That cane o' yours would gi'e a *clour* on a man's head eneuch to produce a phrenological faculty.' '*Clour*' here evidently means a 'blow'; we could not at any rate substitute 'lump' for it. Its usual signification is a 'blow causing a *dint*' or such a dint itself. It is most frequently applied to a dint made in vessels of tin or other metal.

*Cog* does not mean 'a bowl or cup, also a basin,' as our author might have seen from his quotation:

'I winna want my three-girred cog  
For a' the wives in Bogie.'

'Three-girred' (correctly *three-gird*) means 'having three hoops,' and *cog* means a small wooden vessel, shaped nearly like a water bucket, and made in the same way, with staves and hoops.

*Crowdie* never means 'a kind of oatmeal porridge or "parritch," sometimes prepared with water and sometimes with buttermilk.' Its proper meaning is 'a mixture of pressed curds and butter, seasoned with salt,' as in the passage quoted:

'My sister Kate came up the gate  
Wi' *crowdie* unto me, man,  
She swore she saw the rebels run  
Frae Perth unto Dundee, man' (sic).

*Crowds* or *croods* is the Scotch for curds. *Crowdie* sometimes has the sense of 'brose,' which every Scot knows is something very different from porridge.

*Gey* does not mean 'very.' 'Gey an' fou' means not 'very drunk,' but 'pretty drunk.' 'Very' the Scotch express by 'verra' or 'unco.'

*Gorpen* does not signify 'handful.' This word, which is of Norse origin and still in use in Iceland, has no English equivalent. It means the *two hands* placed side by side, so as to form a cup, or the quantity that such a cup can hold. Jamieson defines this word correctly.

*Hain* means not 'to preserve,' but 'to save' or 'to hoard.' '*Weel-hained gear*,' does not, as our author states, mean 'well-preserved money,' but 'well-hoarded wealth.'

*Hummel-doddie* is a remarkable word. Our author makes it signify 'dowdy, ill-fitting, in bad taste.' In this he follows Jamieson, who says it is 'a ludicrous term applied to dress, especially to that of a woman's head, when it has a flat and mean appearance.' Both quote the same example of its use, which seems to have been the source of all their knowledge in regard to it. '*Hummel*' means 'without horns,' e.g. 'a *hummel coo*.' It is applied metaphorically to woollen gloves which cover the whole hand, but have no fingers. *Doddie* has, as nearly as possible, the same signification. Woollen gloves such as I have mentioned are called indiscriminately '*hummel-mittens*,' '*doddie mittens*,' or '*hummel-doddies*.' '*Hummel-doddie*' is applied to anything that has not the proper projections or protuberances. Any one who remembers the high-crowned matches or caps worn by old Scotch ladies, or by Newhaven fishwives, will easily understand what is meant by a '*hummel-doddie match*.' It is a cap without the high crown. There can be no doubt that '*doddie*' and '*dowdy*' are substantially the same word. '*Hummel*' is still represented in the English word '*humble-bee*,' which, with due deference to many great authorities to the contrary, be it said, means simply 'stingless bee,' and has no connection whatever with 'hum.'

*Lunt* does not signify 'the smoke of tobacco,' or 'to emit smoke.' It means a flame that bursts out suddenly accompanied with smoke, and continues but an instant or flickers violently. 'The *luntin* pipe' is the

pipe that emits *flame and smoke* whenever the smoker ceases to inhale the smoke.

*Orra* never signifies 'all sorts of odds and ends.' It is never a substantive, but always an adjective, and has no English equivalent. Its meaning can be shown best by examples. 'Ha'e ye an *orra* pen?' means 'Have you a pen that you don't use?' 'An *orra* man' means a man about a farm who does all odds and ends of work—'*orra* wark.' Applied to character, it means 'disreputable.' 'An *orra* chiel' is a 'disreputable fellow.'

*Rippet* is far too mildly rendered by 'tiff.' It is exactly expressed by the slang word 'row.'

*Splore*, which our author also mistranslates, has nearly the same signification.

*Taigle* means not 'to tease, to perplex, to banter,' but 'to detain,' 'to loiter,' 'to tackle.' In the second sense, it is often pronounced 'dachle.' Our author was here misled by his quotation.

*Wame*, the Scotch form of 'womb,' means not 'stomach' but 'belly.' Here again our author was deceived by his quotations.

*Whaup*, he says, means a 'curlew.' This is true; but it oftener means the 'hulk of any kind of pulse,' or 'a long lean fellow.'

*Whomle* does not signify 'to overwhelm, to turn over clumsily and suddenly, and with a loud noise.' There are in Scotch two distinct words which are written thus: the one—that which occurs in our author's first quotation—means 'to move with a wriggling motion,' used of eels, minnows, etc. (cf. 'Warld's whommlin' up an' doon, bleezin' wi' a flare,' in Ballantyne's 'Castles in the Air'); the second 'to place [a vessel] with its mouth downwards'—the meaning of the word in his second quotation. 'I wad *whomle* [sic] a toom bicker,' means 'I would turn over an empty goblet.' The first word should be written *whommel*, the second *whommel*.

These are all the cases of misapprehension in regard to meaning that I have yet observed in this article. I might point to several cases of gross misquotation; but as these are not likely to mislead any one, I shall refrain.

Now that all the dialects of so many European languages are being committed to writing and studied, why does not some competent person, on the basis of Jamieson, undertake an etymological dictionary of the Scottish language? Such a work would throw an immense amount of light upon the etymology and signification of many English words.

I am, sir, faithfully yours,

THOMAS DAVIDSON.

ST. LOUIS, MO., Jan. 2, 1871.

## Notes.

MESSRS. D. APPLETON & Co. publish this month Parts III. and IV. of Herbert Spencer's 'Principles of Psychology'; a 'Hand-Book of Law,' for the practical guidance of business men, by William Tracy, LL.D.; 'Life and Nature under the Tropics,' by H. M. and P. V. N. Myers, the region described being the Andes, the Orinoco, Rio Negro, and Amazon; a translation, by Dr. Charles E. Hackley, of Billroth's 'General Surgical Pathology and Therapeutics,' in fifty lectures. Also, the following reprints from English works: 'Westward by Rail,' by W. F. Rae, and 'The Recovery of Jerusalem,' by Capt. Wilson and Warren of the Palestine Exploration Fund.—Messrs. G. P. Putnam & Sons have in preparation 'A School History of England,' by Benson J. Lossing; 'The Pilgrim and the Shrine,' by the author of 'Higher Law'; 'Mental Philosophy,' by Prof. John Bascom; 'Leaves from the Book of Nature,' by Prof. Schele de Vere; 'The Humors of Law and Lawyers,' by Irving Browne, a member of the Troy bar; 'The Sisters of Orleans,' a tale relating to the present war in Europe; 'The Young Mechanic,' by the author of 'The Lathe and its Uses'; 'The Earth,' by Elisée Réclus; 'The Hidden Life of the Soul,' by the author of 'A Dominican Artist'; and a one-volume edition, uniform with that of Evelyn, of 'Pepys's Diary.'

—Among the peculiar and interesting practices of the profession to which we have the honor to belong, is the practice of 'extending journalistic courtesies' to other 'knights of the quill.' Thus, if we, for example, were to write a book on political economy, it would bear not the least resemblance to some works on that subject which have been written by Mr. Horace Greeley, or to a work that Colonel John W. Forney might write and publish in Pennsylvania. That, however, would not prevent our sending on a copy to the office of the *Press*, and another over to the *Tribune* office, each accompanied by a letter (bearing at the top of the sheet

the stamp of our own office), in which we should say that we had at last gathered our politico-economical essays up into a book, of which already three copies had been sent to the office of the *Press* (or *Tribune*, as the case might be), and that we now sent a fourth copy, directed to the editor personally, and begged Colonel Forney, or Mr. Greeley, 'to extend to it journalistic courtesies.' Then each of these gentlemen would have to sit down and set about somehow turning out a genial notice of his editorial brother's book, at the same time taking care to run as little danger as possible of the loss of subscribers. Meaningless and florid compliments to our great abilities as a well-known 'member of the press' would be the line Mr. Greeley and Colonel Forney would probably take under the circumstances. But whatever they might do, something they would have to do; just as we, whatever may be our private opinion of it, shall have to praise Mr. Greeley's 'What I Know about Farming' when, by-and-by, he sends it over to us for review. That is journalistic courtesy; and nobody knows what would happen if its rules should fall into desuetude. It is in obedience to the letter and spirit of these rules that 'we here record our greeting to our esteemed contemporary the *Sunday Herald*, of Washington, which springs into the arena of journalism under the auspices of George Alfred Townsend and of Donn Piatt, the celebrated Washington correspondent of the *Cincinnati Commercial*, and formerly enrolled in the ranks of the profession as the editor of the *Macabeek Press*. May the *Herald*, under its new proprietors, renew its youth like the eagle. We bid it welcome.' And, in all seriousness, we give it a welcome, as hoping from it a good deal of the independence, sense, and courage of which both its new editors have, as Washington correspondents, given many proofs. From the necessities of their position, Washington correspondents are almost compelled to a time-serving dependence on senators, representatives, heads of departments and bureaus, and other officials of all sorts. Hired to purvey news; exposed to the keen competition of other purveyors of news; disgraced, if they are beaten, in the race for getting early intelligence; yet for getting any intelligence at all mainly dependent upon the good offices of this and that public man, who perfectly well knows the value of a correspondent's good word, and knows perfectly well, too, his own value to the correspondent—in view of these things, it is no wonder if Washington correspondents are, at their best, reticent to a degree that greatly impairs their usefulness to the public, and are, at their worst, unblushing and unscrupulous partisans of some patron whose favor they must purchase by various concealments and compliances. We do not stand surety for the *Sunday Herald* under its new ownership; we know too little of the editors. But both Mr. Piatt and Mr. Townsend are men of ability, and Mr. Piatt a man of large experience; both appear to have learned a secret that is still to many editors a secret unguessed—namely, that a truly able journal can generally afford to be a perfectly independent journal; both have dared to print a good deal of plain talk about men and things in Washington; Mr. Piatt we know less about, but Mr. Townsend clearly improves from year to year, as well in ability as in self-restraint and respect for his profession, being to-day a much better writer—and about much better things—than he was five years ago. He seems to put himself, with definite purpose, on the side of good causes, and to hate the right men; and to express his aversion with a good degree of effectiveness, whether or not as yet with much literary skillfulness. It would not be surprising if the *Sunday Herald* were made a journal sometimes impudent, often verging on the borders of scandalousness and libellousness, not to say scurrility, often and in many ways very vulgar; but generally fearless, intelligent, clever, and serviceable to readers who like to get reliable information of the way in which things are really brought to pass in Washington, and of the true character of the men and measures that the ordinary newspaper so often, and so often from interested motives, lifts into an atmosphere of utter unreality and delusiveness.

—As we have taken occasion to speak of the Washington correspondent, and as we have spoken of him in a rather disrespectful way—a way in which it would have been unfair to speak of him unless we had at the same time called attention to the very great difficulties of the position—we are glad of an opportunity to assert our conviction that Washington does not want for correspondents worthy of respect for fidelity, high spirit, and honesty, as well as for enterprise, acuteness, and industry. The opportunity in question is furnished by a paragraph now going the rounds of the papers, which is to the effect that Mr. Sidney Andrews, Washington correspondent of the *Boston Advertiser*, is now at last getting well of a sickness which at one time threatened his life, and which has for some months kept him idle. Like other Washington correspondents, Mr.



Andrews's work has to some extent felt the effects of the system which allows the reporter of facts to mix with his report of things that have occurred his own opinions as to their bearings, and as to the motives actuating the men who brought them about. But there is no other Washington correspondent, so far as we know, who more successfully than he has taken more pains than he to make his reports colorless—genuine transcripts of contemporary history, done with unfailing conscientiousness, and with a skillfulness sometimes greater and sometimes less, but always a long way above the average of such work. The Boston *Advertiser's* public is under great obligations to him, and so, too, is the general public, which has been benefited indirectly by the influence which his example has exerted over other journalists.

—The *Congregationalist*, the well-known religious weekly published in Boston, apropos of the recent discussion between 'Old' and 'Young Yale' which has taken place in our columns, refers to 'a manifestation both in the *Nation's* own editorials, and in the communications it receives and publishes from others, of an open and undisguised contempt for clergymen as a class.' We do not often notice misrepresentations, but misrepresentations by a religious paper we, for obvious reasons, do not let pass, when they fall under our eyes. We must, therefore, say of the above, that it is a very gross misrepresentation. There have been no manifestations of contempt for the clergy as a class in our editorials, and no manifestations of any such 'contempt' have appeared in the letters of our correspondents, except in the course of a discussion as to the fitness of clergymen for a certain office, and here the contempt can only be inferred from a denial to them of certain intellectual qualifications. For the opinions of correspondents not paid or employed by us we repudiate all responsibility whatever, but we should no more think of denying a competent writer the privilege of questioning a clergyman's fitness for the work of education than a lawyer's. 'Clergymen as a class,' just like lawyers as a class, have certain marked moral and mental peculiarities: if a sober and honest college graduate thinks that these operate as a disqualification for the conduct of college education, he has a perfect right to say so; and any clergyman who is afraid to have it said, and thinks the paper in which it is said must be a bad, designing paper, may rest assured that he is not well fitted either for college work or his own work. It is now our painful duty to call upon the *Congregationalist* to publish next week, or, at the furthest, the week after, one or two 'manifestations of contempt' for the clergy taken from the editorial articles of the *Nation*.

—In 'Brother Placidus, and why he became a Monk,' the new novel by Father Ignatius, a reader whose mind, to borrow a phrase from the work itself, has been 'rendered irrational by bigotry' is likely to find a good deal of amusement. This may happen in several ways, whether, for example, he regards the feebleness of the story as such, the bad style and worse grammar of it, or the author's hope that it will add to his following or advance his mediaeval notions. As a religious novel it belongs in the same year and the same category with 'Lothair,' but its aim is quite the opposite. Its hero is converted from a hater of all things into a loving disciple of Father Ignatius, and finally a member of his monastery, the interior life of which is given with a frankness which, however creditable, is anything but astute. The foibles of the monks are revealed as if to set off the purity of the novice for whom the story is written, and their conversations are allowed to be almost profanely humorous. Two miracles are introduced, in strict conformity to the originals, which 'actually occurred in our monastery.' One is the bowing of the head of the image of the Christ-child at the ceremonies on Christmas-eve, and his returning the kiss of one of the monks; the other is the appearance of a circle of lambent flame about the head of Brother Placidus. Fortunately for the first, 'a benefited clergyman of the English Church was witness of it,' and the second was distinctly seen by 'two persons, who would be prepared to affirm they saw it on oath.' Any doubts after this would be improper; and it only remains to hope that there may be a third miracle to record in the next edition—the conversion of a soul or two by the reading of this extraordinary fiction.

—To any one who wishes a history of the present war before it is ended, and from a German point of view, can safely be recommended the 'Illustrirte Kriegs-Chronik,' published by J. J. Weber, in Leipzig (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). This work is issued in parts of sixteen pages, of the size of Harper's 'History of the Rebellion,' and already six have appeared. It is copiously and, on the whole, judiciously illustrated, the usual concession being made to the popular taste for battle-scenes which never occurred, and even never could have occurred, to the dis-

placement of so much text or more valuable representations. Some of these, however, seem to be a serious attempt to portray the topography of the more famous engagements. The portraits are unexceptionably good, and skilfully engraved, and consist of the eminent personages, civil and military, on both sides. The historian has not thought it necessary to go back to the Germany of Tacitus or of the Barbarossa to explain the causes of the war, but traces rapidly the chain of events from the famous interview at Biarritz down to the rebuff of Benedetti at Ems; and devoting his second chapter to the concerted preparations on both sides of the Main, and the third to the French movement towards the frontier, is able in the fourth to arrive at actual hostilities. Along with the history there goes in smaller type at the bottom of the page a *Bilder-Chronik*, or account of the engravings, in which a good deal of information is given that otherwise would have impeded the progress of the main narrative. Twenty parts, it is thought, will contain the whole war, though purchasers can judge of this for themselves. The completed work will include a colored map of the seat of war, a chronological table, and the bibliography of the war, besides an index. The title suggests the remark that two of the three words in it are derived from the French. Naturally the word for war (*Krieg*) is not one of these.

—A Paris correspondent of the *Athenaeum* tells of the great activity of M. Jules Simon, undoubtedly the best Minister of Education France has ever had. He has ordered the reading-rooms of the public libraries to be kept open an hour longer than formerly; has reopened the library of the Louvre, and taken steps to furnish it with a reading-room; has addressed himself by circular to the heads of academies, impressing upon them the value of the higher education, and condemning the perversion of scholarships by which the late Government rewarded its favorites. No serious objection can be made to these measures, even as emanating from a member of the Government of National Defense. Though obviously of the kind which only in the long run produce significant changes, their immediate effects are wholly beneficial, and the official example of course counts for something. A feeling nevertheless arises that here, as in the renaming of boulevards, casting of new and shifting of old statues, and tearing down the Imperial insignia, there is a certain waste of energy in presence of the overshadowing, all-pervading necessities of the defence; and that posterity would have found it easier to forgive the present authorities for neglecting to contribute to the observation of the late eclipse, or to postpone the closing hour of reading rooms from three to four p.m., than for the real omissions of duty to the besieged. The scientific societies have very properly turned their debates as far as possible upon subjects connected with the common weal, such as the forcing of vegetables, ballooning, preparation of condensed food, modes of military defence and offence, etc., etc. For one thing, however, the Government and the citizens both had ample leisure, and that was to provide adequate sanitary supplies and organizations, if any attempt was to be made to pierce the German lines. All reports agree, however, in stating that the French ambulance corps was, of the far too few which attended Ducrot's sortie, the least efficient; and that while the Italian and American, and perhaps one or two others, did excellent service, the French must be responsible for a vast amount of suffering unrelieved and lives lost, numbers of the wounded having been frozen to death in that bitter winter weather. The natural concern of the non-combatant portion of a population of two millions, and all the experience of Gen. Trochu and his associates, failed to anticipate the needs of a bloody contest under the very walls of Paris as completely as the self-conceit and incompetency of the military staff of the Empire to anticipate Weissenburg, and Gravelotte, and Sedan.

—A colored physician, Dr. Davis, a native of Barbadoes, has fallen a victim to his zeal in caring for the sufferers by the war in the neighborhood of Sedan. He was a graduate in medicine from Aberdeen, and continued his studies at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London, where he was house-physician. In October he resigned this position in order to help in relieving the distress on the Continent, and to his skill and devoted attention many hundred wounded Bavarians at Sedan must be for ever grateful. He next impartially exerted himself for the needy peasantry round about, at Pont Mangy and Balan, establishing soup kitchens, which he sustained by personal sacrifice and by such contributions as he could procure in England. His solicitations there, during a temporary visit for that purpose, were so incessant and fatiguing that he came back in a condition susceptible to contagion, and was carried off by smallpox contracted in the military hospital. He was only twenty-eight years of age at his death, and his funeral ceremonies, attended by the mayor of Sedan, the German sub-prefect, and a crowd of peasants, were touching in the extreme.

—Dying at Dieppe, on the 5th of December, after a considerable period of unconsciousness or semi-consciousness, Alexandre Dumas was spared the spectacle, as we venture to predict, of the last humiliation of his country. Less fortunate than the unfortunate Prévost-Paradol, he constitutes with Prosper Mérimée the third considerable loss to French letters since the commencement of the war. Viewed merely as a creative mind, his genius is not likely to be exaggerated, and the number of the volumes which bear his name surpasses even the fecundity of Voltaire. Compared with Dickens, as he naturally has been, it is evident that in point of originality and resources he was very much superior to his great contemporary. The morality of the two men differed as that of their respective countries differed, and that perhaps could not be more forcibly suggested than by attempting to suppose Dickens in the attitude with Miss Menken in which Dumas actually permitted himself to be publicly photographed. In this respect the latter was quite in harmony with the Second Empire, whether this is to be laid more to his French or to his negro blood; and it is not too much to say that he could well be spared in the midst of a revolution which seems destined to recall France to a nobler existence than any it has led since the reign which is celebrated in the 'Three Guardsmen.' Dumas was sixty-seven years of age, which must be accounted old as he lived. He is an instance of hereditary genius, his father having been a general of distinction under Bonaparte, and his son, as is well known, being a born novelist and playwright.

—In a recent German work, entitled "The History of German Women," the author, a Dr. Zapp, touches upon the woman question, and, in order to terrify those of his fellow-countrywomen who seem to him too zealous for reform, he draws a most fearful and disheartening picture of the demoralization of American society. For the benefit of those persons in this country who are not satisfied with the present condition of woman, and who claim for her fresh privileges, we make a few extracts from the Doctor's simple narrative, and the more readily because the horrors which he describes are not generally known. His authority for his statements appears to be a New York correspondent of the *Elberfelder Zeitung*. We go at once to the worst: 'There is in this city, in Twenty-third Street, a gambling-hell for ladies, which is regularly frequented by the New York wife and mother.' The *Zeitung's* correspondent visited it in the company of 'a prominent member of the New York press.' The house is a three-story brick house. Its blinds are always shut. One would naturally conclude that it was uninhabited. But not so. On the contrary, it is visited every evening by many of the women of New York, and every evening large sums are lost within its walls. The unadorned exterior corresponds to the splendor and elegance of the interior as little as the closed blinds, apparently indicating perfect calm within, betray the scenes of wild passion which take place there from nightfall to dawn. 'Let the reader follow us through this Twenty-third Street house,' says the correspondent, who, by the way, seems to have acquired a facility with his pen which would do credit to any citizen of his adopted home, and a knowledge of the horrors of the metropolis which must make him a most valuable city correspondent. He writes 'on a cold November evening.' 'The floors are covered with genuine Brussels carpets, which hush every step; the walls are adorned with magnificent frescoes.' Soon he reaches a smaller room than that into which he was first ushered, a room with still thicker carpets, and adorned with pictures still more precious and costly. The company is mixed; some are women of the sort whom one would naturally expect to see there, others evidently belong to good society and are 'of high standing.' 'The playing has already begun. On the faces of the players appear already those passions which,' etc., etc. The keeper of the bank is a young and beautiful woman of Juno-like shape; but she is cold, she is like a marble statue; she shows signs of life only when she has to draw in her winnings, which, we are told, 'are called in the expressive gambling slang of America "chips." One of the players whom our German friend sees is the wife of one of the richest merchants of New York. Another is a young girl, not yet twenty, the daughter of one of the most esteemed judges of the city, who loses her last ten dollar bill, and who 'must now once more rob her father's cash-box.' A third is the widow of a general who was killed in the war. She is a victim of the passion for play. This one loses all her money. She plucks with feverish haste a costly diamond ring from her finger—a present from her hero-husband—and gives that to the holder of the bank. It is valued by that cold statue at no more than one hundred and twenty dollars. Although the General's widow knows it to be worth five hundred, she eagerly seizes the small sum. She plays; she loses—but here the scene grows too fearful for description. Many a penniless victim of this unholy passion takes laudanum,

usually in lemonade, before she can be stopped; but what then? Always the coroner's juries are bribed to say nothing more about it, 'and in the Twenty-third Street house the playing goes on as it did before!' After reading this, need one be surprised that foreigners misunderstand one another? Germans should know the United States better than almost any country; yet here we have an educated and intelligent gentleman, lecturing in the enlightened city of Berlin, who, in all honesty, proclaims these absurd fables. And what is worse, they will not want for believers.

—American women have lately been the theme of a lecture delivered in Milan by a lady with a German seeming surname, Malvina Frank. In a course of four readings on woman, of which the last was on ignorance and materialism in matrimony, the third was devoted to the legal and social condition of our countrywomen. From a mere abstract of her remarks we infer that she was better informed than the learned Doctor we have just been quoting. She aimed principally to describe the educating mission of the women of the United States, and showed how they were prepared for it by their own education, 'based on the principle of full equality with man.' This is stating the fact too broadly, of course, though every year makes it truer; and the lecture was certainly speaking rather of the future than of the present, when she mentioned the 'civil offices to which women are readily admitted in the States, and which they fill with remarkable aptness, and generally in a satisfactory manner.' This is true only of postmistresses, who, for the rest, are very exceptional, though in Wyoming, we believe, women, besides the suffrage, have attained in some instances the dignity of justice of the peace. Madame Frank manifested good sense in reminding her hearers of the difference between a new society, like the American, and an old one, and that Italian women ought to avoid 'every exaggeration of principles and of aspirations,' trusting instead to the slow but sure operation of progressive civilization.

—United Italy gives daily example of the incompleteness which still characterizes its politics, and which, as we remarked the other day, removes the excuses of statesmen like Ricasoli, who retire because there is nothing else for them to do. The condition of Ravenna, for instance, is enough, or should be enough, to engage their best energies till it is permanently bettered; and this, they do not need to be told, is not the work of a day. Pavia is another fit subject for their attention. A short-lived paper, the *Costituzionale*, has just succumbed there, not because its funds gave out, or because its sympathizers were not in a numerical majority in the city, or because its conductors were intimidated by the violent menaces of the Ring which controls the municipal government. They were simply disheartened by the indifference or timidity of the friends of order and decent politics, and abandoned a struggle whose perils they would have endured if it had promised to end in the regeneration of the city. This lack of faith rather than of pluck will not be laid to the Italian character by any one who reflects how analogous it is to the state of things in New York. Disguise it as we may, there is here a real reign of terror, and our freedom of speech is at the pleasure of a Ring of which that at Pavia would have much to learn. In spite of occasional denunciations of Tweed and Sweeny, of this job and that, and exposure of frauds at the polls so reckless as not to be proportioned to the census, the city press has virtually abdicated like the *Costituzionale*, and exists only in virtue of its national importance, not of its metropolitan mission and influence. Here, too, as in Pavia, the apathy of the respectable classes is the cause of this surrender on the part of journals not wanting in good intentions or in courage.

#### THE ARMY OF AFRICA.\*

DOUBTLESS that system, or rather want of system, which has obtained of late years in Algeria, is one of the many causes which have combined to destroy the regular armies of France. Previous to the present war, Generals von Moltke and Trochu had pointed out some of the evils and shortcomings of that 'training school' to which such undue importance has been attached, and whose graduates in the hour of trial have been found so sadly wanting. The army which was the most 'African' (McMahon's) was the first to fall, and, from its pell-mell flight after the battle of Wörth until the surrender at Sedan, offered an example of negligence and incompetency of the superior officers, and of unsteadiness and insubordination on the part of the soldiers, which prevented the strength of the German army from being tested, and which has rarely been equalled in military history. For nearly twenty years, service in Algeria has been almost

\* *Campagnes de l'Armée d'Afrique, 1833-1839. Par le Duc d'Orléans: publié par ses fils. Michel Lévy frères. Paris: 1870.*



a sinecure. Active operations have been confined to light cavalry and partisan troops, who have been exercised in reducing to subjection various bands of robbers; but unfortunately the spirit of this *guérillerie* has permeated the entire military system, and induced marshals of France to execute manœuvres against the King of Prussia which might more fittingly be used against a sheik of some tribe of Arabs. Moreover, it is unavoidable that an army of upwards of eighty thousand men, kept under quite loose discipline, in a hot climate, where the only civilized population consists of camp-followers, and those who have become reconciled to their position as a 'last resort,' should not become more or less demoralized. The stories told of the luxurious habits of the French officers—that all the officers who could afford it followed their men at their own convenience and in carriages, for instance—were doubtless greatly exaggerated; but still there is enough truth in them to be suggestive of some of the Orientalisms which have crept into the army. It is, however, impossible to read the Duc d'Orléans's animated and modest description of campaigns conducted on such principles as were those of the Tafna, Sickack, Boudouaou, and Constantine, without being convinced that at that time Algeria was a most excellent training school for every department of the army. Service in Africa then meant a series of toilsome marches, difficult retreats, and hard-won victories, which at once demanded the greatest ability on the part of the higher officers, and tested the qualities of soldiers to the last point. Such campaigns give evidence that, with judicious management, French troops are capable of adding to their other virtues that calmness and patient endurance which they lack so much at present.

The account of the Algerian campaigns, by the chivalrous young prince who took such a prominent part in them, besides being a welcome addition to French history, furnishes the connecting link between the military annals of the First and Second Empires; for the now fleeting generation of officers made their professional début in Africa, under the supervision of men who had studied the art of war, and held high command in the armies of the First Napoleon. 'L'Armée d'Afrique,' the Comte de Paris writes, 'is the title of a work in which the Duc d'Orléans proposed to give to France a record of the deeds and achievements of that army in whose ranks he had had the honor to serve. To the accomplishment of this work he devoted all the spare moments of a life so prematurely ended. . . . It was not fated that the task should be finished; but among his papers this fragment was left, which still needed the author's final correction, and the publication of which his sons felt to be an homage due to the memory of their father, and the discharge of a legacy bequeathed by him to that army in which his pure patriotism beheld a faithful likeness of the French nation.' As the narrative of the Duc d'Orléans only relates to the five years preceding the peace of 1839, his younger son, the Duc de Chartres, has given a clear and spirited account of events which had previously taken place.

To Charles X. belongs the credit of having first gained a foothold for France in North Africa. In the latter part of his reign, urged by numerous insults to the French flag, but perhaps chiefly by the hope of being able to strengthen the tottering administration of Prince Polignac by means of military prestige, this sovereign determined to send an expedition against Algiers, 'not only to avenge the wrongs of France, but also to destroy for ever that nest of pirates.' In June, 1830, the Comte de Bourmont, after various mishaps, succeeded in landing with an army of thirty thousand men upon a peninsula near the city of Algiers. Five of the subordinate officers of this army were destined to become marshals of France—Baraguey d'Hilliers, Vaillant, Pélissier, MacMahon, and Magnan. After a severe campaign which lasted only twenty days, the city of Algiers, with its thousand cannon, splendid fleet, and fifty millions of treasure, fell into French hands. Strongholds in the interior were seized, and the standard of Henri Quatre now waved over a 'new France.' If at this time there had been men in the French Government who possessed half the talent and executive ability of the Outrams and Lawrences, it is possible that the successes of the Comte de Bourmont might have done for France what those of Lord Clive did for England. But soon news of the Revolution of July reached the army. Reports became current that the troops were to embark for France; the inland garrisons were withdrawn, and the Count was obliged to leave the country in an Austrian frigate. The natives quickly regained courage at what they believed to be a confession of fear on the part of their invaders.

At the critical moment the famous Abd-el-Kader, then in his twenty-fourth year, appeared upon the scene, and preached a 'holy war' against the Christians, who were forced to take refuge within the walls of Algiers. As soon as Louis Philippe became established

on the throne, Marshal Clauzel was appointed the Comte de Bourmont's successor. This energetic officer was surrounded by so many difficulties that he could make but little headway against the enemy. Native troops were now for the first time made use of, and the Zouaves and Spahis first saw service in an expedition to Médjah, during which Lieutenant MacMahon, of the *Etat-major*, had the honor to be the first Frenchman to set foot on the summit of the mountain range of the country over which he was afterwards called to rule. Clauzel was succeeded in turn by Bérthezène, the Duc de Rovigo (Savary), Voirol, and the Comte d'Erlon. During the administration of this latter officer, Abd-el Kader gained a decisive victory at Marta over the army commanded by General Trézel, which disaster had the effect of replacing Marshal Clauzel. During an expedition to Mascara, Abd-el Kader's capital, the Duc d'Orléans highly distinguished himself by driving the enemy from some woods, at the head of a detachment of the 17th *Léger* and the *bataillon d'Afrique*. The innovations which Bugeaud introduced into African warfare, and success traceable to them, are described at some length by the prince, and may be read with profit by the military student. The account of the siege and capture of Constantine, where the Governor-General Damrémont, his chief of staff, and six other officers, were killed outright at the side of the Duc de Nemours, is of absorbing interest.\* The defence of this 'devil's city,' as it was called, was as obstinate as that of Saragossa, and like Saragossa, the defenders were more numerous than the assailants. The unflagging resolution of the little army of besiegers, wasted by disease and decimated by incessant fighting with an army of trained soldiers, better provided with artillery than themselves; the perseverance and cool daring of the engineers, who were forced to 'execute in broad daylight those operations usually undertaken at night and under cover, and to commence siege-works without preliminary approaches, on bare rocks, and at distances at which they commonly terminate; and, more than all, the noble-heartedness of the soldiers in the hour of final success, who, 'passing from the direst misery to the brilliant seductions of Oriental luxury, were seen to halt, and, at the call of honor and discipline, lend a helping hand to the vanquished, and adopt the children whom their bayonets had just made orphans,' are pictured to the reader in the most lifelike colors. The attack was fixed for Friday, the 13th of October; a 'few superstitious spirits' were startled at the ill-omen of Friday and the number of thirteen; 'so much the worse for the Mussulmans,' replied General Fleury. Lieutenant Colonel de Lamoricière and Commandant Vieux were the first to reach the slope; in an instant, the former was wounded and the latter killed.† A detachment of the 2d *Léger* was buried under the falling walls, and its brave commander, slowly sinking in the masonry, 'still found words to encourage his men, until his crushed chest no longer gave forth any sound.' Altogether, the account of this successful assault, through a breach only ten metres wide, forms one of the most interesting stories of daring ever told. Such moving accidents by flood and field become under the prince's historical memoir as light in hand and entertaining as any novel. The concluding chapter gives an account of Marshal Valée's operations in 1838-9. The tenure of Constantine and Sétif was precarious so long as the enemy were in possession of the Portes de Fer—a perilous defile and natural fortress on the line of communications with Algiers; and the capture of this stronghold by the Division d'Orléans bears testimony to the Prince's military ability. The great prevalence of sickness in the army and the lack of proper medical attendance are described in this chapter, which also contains some reflections on sanitary reform which deserve especial attention. The narrative abruptly terminates with the return of the Division d'Orléans to Algiers.

The literary execution of the work is worthy of the historic name which the authors bear; and it is earnestly to be hoped that 'one of the "anciens Algériens,"' as the Duc d'Orléans used to call them, will finish a history so fitting to keep alive the traditions of those military virtues which are the honor and the essential characteristics of a truly national army.'

#### ERSKINE'S SPEECHES.†

THIS is an American edition of Erskine's speeches which is in nearly every respect better than any English edition yet published—considerably better than the last or Reeves & Turner edition which appeared in London last year. Mr. High has judiciously made his explanatory notes

\* This chapter appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of April, 1870.

† According to the Duc d'Orléans, Commandant Vieux, of the Engineers, was the man who forced open the gate of La Haie Sainte during the battle of Waterloo.

‡ Speeches of Lord Erskine while at the Bar. Edited by James Lambert High, Counsellor-at-law. Two volumes. Chicago: Callaghan & Cockcroft. 1870.

brief, presuming, doubtless, and with good reason, that few men take up Erskine's speeches who are not sufficiently familiar with the history of the times in which he lived to make much elucidation wearisome. The introductory memoir tells the leading facts of his career fairly enough, but in some places has an unpleasant 'reportorial' flavor. It is a little too bad to tell us of Erskine, of all men—nor were the charms of an elegant physique and of an attractive personal appearance wanting [to him]. His form was peculiarly graceful, slender, and supple, yet when warmed with an address, quivering with the pent-up excitement of the occasion. This sounds like a paragraph from 'Our Washington Correspondent's' account of his last hero's appearance on the floor of the House.

Erskine belonged to a class of men whom it is becoming more and more difficult to get the world to admire—so far away from us do the influences and abuses against which they contended seem. He made his appearance at the English bar at a period when the bar played a more important part in politics than it ever did before or is ever likely to do again. The reactionary oligarchy had firm possession of both Houses of Parliament, and, under the influence of the panic excited by the French Revolution, were bent on setting up a kind of government in England which would have been a closer approach to that of Venice than anything which existed then or has since existed. An energetic attempt was being made by the governing classes to repress the democratic spirit which had been growing steadily since the days of Wilkes, and above all 'to curb the license of the press,' which was the most prominent expression of this spirit; and the opposing forces met and fought their battle out in the courts. Erskine's accidental appearance in Captain Baillie's case brought him at once to the front, and he soon became the hero of the crisis; and in the course of the next twenty years he was instrumental in preventing some serious changes in the spirit of the constitution, and in putting the liberty of the press for the first time on a really secure footing, by handing it over to the protection of the jury. The scene in which he stood out against Judge Buller's ruling that to the court belonged the decision of the question of libel or no libel, to the jury simply the question of the fact of publication, is worthy, in any English historical gallery, of a place beside the signing of the Magna Charta, or the attempt to seize the Five Members, or the Trial of the Seven Bishops.

For this reason, Erskine is one of the few lawyers whose speeches are cherished and remembered outside the bar. He shares with Demosthenes and Cicero, and with them only, the honor of having made in courts of justice speeches which, as Horne Tooke said of that delivered in his own defence, 'will live for ever.' He owes his celebrity, too, it must be admitted, rather to his eloquence than his learning—because he was after all but little of a lawyer, and in quieter times would probably have made but little figure at the bar. He understood the principles of the English constitution thoroughly, and argued from them with matchless force and fire, but in legal lore he never attained a very high rank and made an indifferent chancellor, and such of his speeches as were delivered in the ordinary controversies of everyday practice strike one as labored and high-flown. He had, indeed, in order to shine, to have great occasions to deal with. His temperament and his life in the army and navy, in both of which he served before going to the bar, gave him a fire which did him and his clients no small service, and indeed may be said to have made his fortune, by impelling him into that audacious reply to Lord Mansfield which was the glory of the Baillie case. Beginning to denounce severely Lord Sandwich, who was prosecuting Captain Baillie, Lord Mansfield reminded the young advocate that Lord Sandwich was not before the court. 'I know he is not before the court, and for that very reason I will bring him before the court,' Erskine thundered out. It was his first appearance, and the interruption would have disconcerted most men in a similar position; on him it only acted as a spur. The same quality made him, perhaps, not only one of the most successful but most ardent and courageous jury-lawyers ever seen. In some of his principal cases, he had to encounter not simply the hostility of the government but the frown of his own associates and of 'society,' then a comparatively small but very powerful body, whose smiles were dear to Erskine; but nothing ever made him swerve, and, indeed, the persistent and uncompromising gallantry of his performances in court savored more of the camp than of the bar. It was his splendid pluck as much as his eloquence which made the English press really free, and destroyed the odious doctrine of constructive treason.

The fidelity to their clients of which he and Brougham furnished the most conspicuous examples, and which, indeed, Brougham in his cele-

brated declaration about the duties of counsel reduced to an absurdity, was a great virtue in days when clients were poor men pursued by the crown. It has been used in later times to excuse or justify a fidelity to very different persons which springs from very different motives, and is attended with very different results. Erskine was pressed hard, by every influence to which he was most susceptible, not to undertake the defence of Tom Paine, when tried for a libel alleged to be committed in 'The Rights of Man.' Paine was an unsavory client, and Erskine defended him unwillingly and unsuccessfully; but his courage in resisting all temptations to refuse his retainer has had, perhaps, much to do with begetting and propagating theories of an advocate's duty to his client which are both immoral and dangerous. The ethics of the bar are full of perplexing problems of casuistry, not one of which can, of course, be solved satisfactorily without a careful consideration of the circumstances—which is nearly the same thing as saying that it is useless to try to set up a peculiar standard of morality for lawyers, and that right and wrong at the bar, as in many other places, are questions of degree. Erskine defended Paine for writing a book whose opinions he certainly abhorred, and defended him in spite of threats and obloquy; but if Paine had been acquitted through his exertions, and had then commenced a series of similar publications, and offered Erskine a general retainer for the purpose of having him held harmless in the prosecution of a business which Erskine would have considered nefarious, there can be little doubt what the lawyer's answer would have been. It may be proper to take a brief once from a man, from whom to take briefs twice, or continuously for a great number of times, would be wholly wrong. Erskine, five years after Paine's conviction, prosecuted, under instructions from a body called the 'Society for the Suppression of Vice and Immorality,' a poor bookseller, named Williams, for publishing the 'Age of Reason,' by the same author, and made his speech the vehicle of his own sentiments as to the character and value of the Christian religion, in which he was a devout believer, and declared that 'he would sooner have all his other speeches committed to oblivion than that a single page of it should be lost.' The doctrines laid down in the address in defence of the 'Rights of Man' will hardly bear reading side by side with the denunciation of the 'Age of Reason,' and it is curious to see how short a time ago very sensible men like Erskine were thoroughly satisfied Christianity could not hold its own without the aid of the police. Williams was convicted; but, before he was called up for judgment, Erskine was induced to visit him in a wretched garret, in which he and his wife were toiling painfully by the bedside of three children down with the small-pox, and was so moved by the spectacle of their penitence and misery that he advised the society not to press for sentence. On its refusing to comply, he withdrew from its service. His Christianity was too strong and too pure for this mode of defending it.

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*An Elementary Greek Grammar.* By William W. Goodwin, Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard University. (Boston: Ginn Bros. & Co. 1870.)—Professor Goodwin has 'attempted to make a Greek grammar in which the facts and principles of the language shall be stated in as concise a form as is consistent with clearness and precision.' Brevity has certainly been attained. Etymology occupies a hundred and twelve of the duodecimo pages of the grammar; syntax a hundred; and metres and a catalogue of anomalous verbs make up the whole number—two hundred and twenty-eight. About one-third of this amount of matter—such as statements of dialectic forms, necessary for the pupil reading Homer; syntactical examples, illustrative of principles, but which it might be hardly desirable to commit to memory—is apparently not intended to be learned by heart. Thus it is seen that the whole voluminous grammar of the Greek language is brought within a most unusually reasonable compass. It might almost be asserted—if the nature of boys were not so well known—that six months of school-time of a clever boy would be enough to give him the whole. There being such compression, the question of course suggests itself whether the treatise has compactness. In this respect, too, the author seems to us to have been successful. We do not find that there is omission of anything that is necessary to any except professional students and those far advanced. The absence of troublesome technical terms is noticeable throughout the book, and there is no metaphysical discussion of cases or moods and tenses. The point of view which is taken is decidedly practical, the author seeming to wish that the pupil should learn the language first, and that philosophizing about it should come afterwards—an order of procedure which no doubt is much the best. Worthy of commendation as this grammar is in all its



parts, the treatment of the syntax of verbs is where the author is most original, and where perhaps is found most of the superiority of the book. The chapters on this subject are abridged from Mr. Goodwin's 'Greek Moods and Tenses,' and contain all the general principles of that work, now for the first time adapted for use in preparatory schools, and here treated of in a manner that must, we should think, clear up in the minds of all intelligent pupils and instructors the very hazy subject of Greek syntax. The distinction between general and particular suppositions which has given the clue to the devious ways of the protasis and apodosis in Greek—and Latin, too, for that matter—is set forth so plainly as to be understood with ease by anybody. This distinction, by the way, is a purely American discovery, and one in which we may properly take some pride. The Germans, even, have not yet attained to it, and the English would seem to be hopelessly astray.

The various constructions of relative sentences are also made very clear, and their analogy to conditional clauses is set forth fully and without undue metaphysical subtlety. Many persons will be pleased to notice that in the treatment of forms comparative grammar is recognized as the only true basis of a scientific knowledge of the subject. There are differences of opinion as to how far elementary books should deal with comparative grammar. Where, however, as in this book, the history of forms is merely suggested to account for apparent irregularities, without burdening the memory of the pupil, slight glimpses of comparative grammar can hardly fail to stimulate a wholesome curiosity. Of this kind are the notices of the lost  $\sigma$  in the oblique cases of  $\gamma\epsilon\nu\omicron\varsigma$ , the discussion of the feminine of the participles of the third declension, the note which gives the comparative inflection of the verb  $\epsilon\iota\mu\iota$  in five cognate languages, and the suggestion in reference to the original eight cases of the Indo-European family.

The book well deserves to be recommended to teachers; and even those of us who learned our Greek under less favorable circumstances may read the syntax at least with pleasure and profit.

*The Iliad of the East*: A Selection of Legends drawn from Valmiki's Sanskrit poem, the Rāmāyana. By Frederika Richardson, author of 'Xavier and I.' (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1870. 12mo, pp. xix., 315.)—The authoress of this pretty volume serves up in English prose the main contents of the great Hindu poem. Her foundation is not the original, but the French version of M. Hippolyte Fauche. And this she has not merely condensed greatly; she has told over everything in a style of her own, with plentiful admixture of modern sentiment in Western coloring; so that her work represents the incidents but not at all the tone of the real Rāmāyana—for a faithful reflection of which we must go to Mr. Griffiths' versified selections or Mr. Wheeler's detailed abstract and part version. We cannot altogether approve this mode of treatment, which brings out a result that is neither one thing nor another, but many readers will perhaps be won by the Western garb to an interest in the Eastern subject, and so the book, besides furnishing an entertainment of a somewhat novel flavor, will help introduce to the public a literature which ought to be more widely known than it is now known.

*Sam Shirk*. A Tale of the Woods of Maine. By Geo. H. Devereux. (New York: Hurd & Houghton.)—It is clear that the author of 'Sam Shirk' will not find the solution of the problem which centres in the New England character. His story could hardly be less interesting or his characterization less individual. Sam Shirk, the hero, is a shiftless, pithless vagabond, who, by the gift of a farm, becomes suddenly endowed also with thrift and energy in a way which goes far to confirm the vote-yourself-a-farm party in their most extravagant pretensions. The author

moralizes through nearly 400 pages, and only succeeds in awakening any interest in the reader by the resuscitation of Cooper's red-skin bugaboo and spectacular strategy, in which wampum makes the Indian and bad grammar the Yankee.

The moralizing and philosophy are hardly up to the standard of New England shrewdness, as this example may show:

There is no more marked characteristic of this world than what our philosophers please to call its imperfection. In morals and in physics, the abstract principle is seldom found perfect or unalloyed. The concrete development and visible form combine, always, more or less exceptional matter. Everything works, at times, what seems mischief to our partial perceptions. From the golden circlet of the year, with all its beautiful and wonderful beneficence, dart forth, from point to point, casualties that sting like serpents hidden in a wreath of flowers. The glorious source of physical life and light pours down the *coup de soleil* upon the incautious head. The air that is the breath of our nostrils sweeps us away in the hurricane, withers and freezes us in the polar blast, and stifles us in the sirocco. The elements that are our ministers, and are assumed, by our complacent vanity, to have been created only for that purpose, must be watched continually, or they become our masters and destroyers. In the moral world, the noblest virtues trench narrowly upon the meanest vices; and the head must be clear indeed, and the resolve steady, that can maintain the exact line of right. Countless disturbing influences cause the sensitive and impulsive spirit to oscillate about the strait and narrow path. The magnet, though ever faithful to its mysterious polarity, is stationary and true only in a state of repose and isolation unknown to human hearts. Even under the most favorable conditions, our spirits waver over an endless cycle of aberration, returning to their precise meridian only to wander on the other side.

What needs the mother care for the child, if it were born a 'hinfant phenomenon?' What needs the child revere or love its parent, if it lacked neither guidance nor support? What need of affection, tenderness, benevolence, if every human being stood upright in the rigidity of absolute exactitude?

What need indeed! And what need of Sam Shirk? we might ask, if the need of anything were its only *raison d'être*.

What the author might evidently have told us, if he had been content with a severe simplicity, is something of the woods life, the actual struggle with nature and her forces; but even here there is too much exaggeration and piling up of sensation to leave an impression of trustworthiness. His accuracy of observation of the habits of animals is shown by his saying that 'the moose, like other deer, sheds his horns annually about the month of November.' There is small use of a man's recording 'the simple outgrowth of ten years of his own life' when he has not learned to record the most commonplace incidents about him correctly!

\* \* \* Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books upon the wrapper.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Calkins (N. A.), Primary Object Lessons, 15th ed.....	(Harper & Bros.)
Crosby (Rev. H.), Jesus, His Life and Work.....	(University Pub. Co.) 4 50
Conant (T. J.), The Psalms, Common Version revised.....	(Am. Bible Union)
Currier (Mrs. S.), By the Sea: a Tale.....	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)
Davidson (Lucretia M.), Poems.....	(Hurd & Houghton) 2 50
Johnson (S. W.), Chemical Notation and Nomenclature, Old and New, swd.....	(John Wiley & Son)
Karl (S.), Shorter Course in English Grammar.....	(Ivison, Blackman & Co.) 0 75
Maudsley (Dr. H.), Body and Mind.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
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Reavis (L. U.), The Young Men of the West, swd.....	(G. P. Putnam & Sons) 0 75
Reeves (P.), The Student's Own Speaker.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
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